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IV - Semester

310 43

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

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SYLLABI-BOOK MAPPING TABLE

Organizational Behaviour

Syllabi	Mapping in Book
BLOCK I: ELEMENTS OF BEHAVIOUR **Unit - 1:** Organizational Behaviour-Characteristics of Human Behaviour-Meaning-Definition-Nature of Organizational Behaviour-Basic Objectives of Organizational Behaviour-Key Elements of Organizational Behaviour-Importance of Organizational Behaviour. **Unit - 2:** Foundations of Individual Behaviour-Positive Individual Behaviour-Negative Individual Behaviour-Factors Influencing Individual Behaviour-Personal Factors-Environmental Factors-Behavioural Models. **Unit - 3:** Personality-Definitions-Determinants of Personality-Influence of Personality on Behaviour-Personality Traits-Influencing Behaviour-Personality Development-Personality Theories. **Unit - 4:** Perception-Definitions-Sensation and Perception-Process of Perception-Determinants of Perception-Qualities of Perceiver-Learning-Meaning and Definition-Nature and Characteristics of Learning-Theories of Learning. **Unit - 5:** Attitude and Values-Definitions-Nature and Characteristics of Attitude and Values-Measurement of Attitude-Functions of Attitude-Attitude Change-Values and Attitudes-Types of Values-Formation of Values.	**Unit 1:** Introduction to Organizational Behaviour **(Pages 1-11);** **Unit 2:** Foundations of Individual Behaviour **(Pages 12-25);** **Unit 3:** Personality **(Pages 26-36);** **Unit 4:** Perception and Learning **(Pages 37-59);** **Unit 5:** Attitudes and Values **(Pages 60-71)**
BLOCK II: ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT **Unit - 6:** Groups in Organization-Meaning-Characteristics-Reasons for Formation of Groups-Types of Groups-Different Stages of Groups-Group Norms-Group Cohesiveness-Decision Making and the Group-Individual and Group Decisions. **Unit - 7:** Work Stress-Stress and Counselling-Causes of Stress- Personal Factors-Organizational Factors-Stress-Performance Relationship-Psychological Problems-Behavioural Changes-Escaping Stress-Coping with Stress-Couselling. **Unit - 8:** Organizational Change-Meaning-Factors Influencing Change-Internal Factors-External Factors-Resistance to Change-Possible Benefits of Resistance-Organizational Development-Objectives of OD-Evaluation and Follow up-Organizational Development-Merits and Demerits. **Unit - 9:** Organizational Culture and Climate-Types-Determinants-Changing Organizational Culture-Organizational Climate-Determinants of Organizational Culture-Impact of Organizational Climate-Measures. **Unit - 10:** Organizational Conflicts-Definitions-Causes of Conflicts-Different Stages of Conflict-Conflict and Performance-Measures to Stimulate Conflicts-Conflict Outcomes.	**Unit 6:** Groups in Organization **(Pages 72-85);** **Unit 7:** Work Stress **(Pages 86-101);** **Unit 8:** Organizational Change **(Pages 102-119);** **Unit 9:** Organizational Culture and Climate **(Pages 120-139);** **Unit 10:** Organizational Conflicts **(Pages 140-152)**
BLOCK III: ORGANIZATIONAL PROCESS **Unit - 11:** Career Planning-Meaning and Characteristics-Need for Career Planning-Process of Career Planning-Preparing and Implementing Action-Plans-Evaluation of Career Planning Limitations.	**Unit 11:** Career Planning **(Pages 153-162);**

Unit - 12: Emotional Intelligence-Emotions-Types of Emotions-Managing Emotions-Emotional Intelligence-Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence-Advantages and Limitations of Emotional Intelligence.
Unit - 13: Power, Politics and Impression Management-Power, Authority and Influence-Sources-Organizational Politics-Nature of Organizational Politics-How to Overcome Negative Impact of Organizational Conflicts.
Unit - 14: Communication and Knowledge Management-Meaning of Communication-Functions-Communication Process-Directions of Communication-Types of Communication-Knowledge Management-Dimensions of Knowledge Management-Knowledge Management Processes.

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

NOTES

Organizational Behaviour is related to the behaviour of individuals or groups of people working together in teams. The study becomes more challenging when situational factors interact. The study of organizational behaviour relates to the expected behaviour of an individual in the organization and application of managerial skills and knowledge to people in the organization to investigate individual and group behaviour.

Organizations have realized that their success depends not so much on the effectiveness of their systems and processes, as on the effectiveness of their human resources. The success or failure of organizations is determined to a great extent by their employees. Employees exhibit many forms of behavior, which have a significant impact on the performance and growth of organizations.

Organizational behaviour provides insights into the basics of employee behaviour in organizations. It discusses various aspects of individual behaviour, such as personality, perception and motivation and also examines the behavior of people working in groups and teams.

Various philosophers and thinkers have put across their own unique theories of needs explaining the affect of motivation and its importance for helping individuals achieve their goals which are in synchronization with the goals of the organization. Organizational behaviour highlights the various decision-making processes and leadership skills for the successful functioning of groups. It is a term related to the study of individual and group dynamics in an organizational setting as well as the effect of power on organizational change and development.

This book, *Organizational Behaviour*, is written with the distance learning student in mind. It is presented in a user-friendly format using a clear, lucid language. Each unit contains an Introduction and a list of Objectives to prepare the student for what to expect in the text. At the end of each unit are a Summary and a list of Key Words, to aid in recollection of concepts learnt. All units contain Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises, and strategically placed Check Your Progress questions so the student can keep track of what has been discussed.

BLOCK - I
ELEMENTS OF BEHAVIOUR

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UNIT 1 INTRODUCTION TO ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Structure

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The study of Organizational Behaviour (OB) is interesting as well as challenging. It relates to individuals and group of individuals working together in teams. The study becomes all the more interesting with the influence of situational factors around the individuals. We all are aware that no two individuals are similar; hence, it depends on the acumen of the manager to analyse the behaviour of the individual and delegate the work to him accordingly. Organizational behaviour endeavours to gather information with reference to a topic in a scientific manner under controlled conditions.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the meaning of organizational behaviour
- Examine the characteristics of human behaviour
- Describe the objectives and benefit of organizational behaviour

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1.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

Human behaviour, a complex phenomenon as it is, is most difficult to define in absolute terms. It is primarily a combination of responses to external and internal stimuli. These responses would reflect psychological structure of the person and may be a result of a combination of biological and psychological processes. It is a system by which a human being senses external events and influences, interprets them, responds to them in an appropriate manner and learns from the result of these responses.

Psychologist Kurt Levin has conducted considerable research into the human behaviour and its causes. He believes that people are influenced by a number of diversified factors, both genetic and environmental, and the influence of these factors determines the pattern of behaviour. He called his conception of these influences 'the field theory' and suggested this formula:

$$B = F (P, E)$$

in which behaviour (B) is a function (F) of a person (P) and environment (E) around him. It is important to recognize the effect of the 'person' and that of the environment individually as well as their interaction and dependence upon each other in order to understand the pattern of behaviour. These two factors are highly linked with each other. Any one of these two factors individually cannot fully explain the behaviour characteristics. An individual's behaviour may change due to a change in the same environment or exposure to a different environment. For example, a person who loses a well-paying job may behave differently when he is unemployed. Similarly, just the environment in itself cannot be the cause of or explain a given behaviour. Different people behave differently in the same or similar environment. However, when the situation demands, the environment may change the behaviour of an individual. For example, certain training programmes or rehabilitation programmes have changed the human attitudes and behaviour. Sometimes a sudden and unexpected turn of events or a shock can also induce significant and permanent changes in the human behaviour. For example, there are a number of stories in the Indian religious scriptures where a known killer or a dacoit came to a temple and his whole personality and outlook changed. Thus, the environment can change the individual in his or her behaviour. Similarly, the individuals can also change the environment by setting goals and standards and by determination and motivation.

1.3 MEANING, DEFINITION AND NATURE OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organizational behaviour has been defined as the knowledge of people's behaviour at work. It is a meaningful solution to complex human problems. "Organizational Behaviour is the study and application of knowledge about how people act within

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an organization. It is a human tool for human benefit. It applies broadly to the behaviour of people in all types of organization." The behaviour of people at work depends on numerous factors such as technology, structure, group, social setup and so on. The organizational structure has a significant place in shaping the behaviour of people. Technology helps in the performance of the job in a successful and systematic manner. Fred Luthans has rightly emphasised on behaviour. "Organizational behaviour is directly concerned with the understanding, prediction and control of human behaviour in organizations." It is the study of the behaviour of people to improve the efficiency of the organization. The understanding and analysis of the behaviour of people helps in motivation for achieving the organizational goal. The study of behaviour is essential because of the different nature of people. Besides individual differences, people are whole persons and total human beings. Behaviour is changed as a result of motivation. Human dignity and ethics are observed in their behaviour. An organization's internal environment, social environment, individual perception and learning, group affiliations and technological development are instrumental in shaping behaviour. Behaviour is required to be modified and developed to achieve the organizational goal.

"Organizational behaviour is concerned with the study of the behaviour, attitudes and performance of workers in an organizational setting, the organization's and informal group's effect on the worker's perceptions, feelings and actions, the environment's effect on the organization and its human resources and goals, and the effect of the workers on the organization and its effectiveness." This definition lays emphasis on individual attributes, the group's effects, organizational structure and environment for shaping the people at work. These factors are interdependent and interrelated. Organizational behaviour is considered to be a branch of science wherein human behaviour is studied, researched, concluded and channelized for organizational effectiveness. Not only individual behaviour but the role of the group and organizational structure are also studied. The interrelated and influencing environment is appraised for deciding the typical behaviour of people at work and their impact on the organization's effectiveness and goal accomplishment. Behavioural science studies the variables associated with the behaviour of people and their performance. Stephen P. Robbins has said, "Organizational behaviour (frequently abbreviated as OB) is a field of study that investigates the impact, that individuals, groups and structure have on behaviour within the organizations for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organization's effectiveness." Organizational behaviour has become a field of study to understand the behaviour of individuals, groups and structure. The purpose of the study is to modify and mould their behaviour for increasing the effectiveness and efficiency of the organization. It is a systematic study of behaviour to improve the performance of the people and the organization. Many important activities of the people's development are included under organizational behaviour. Motivation, learning, personality development, conflict resolution, stress management and interpersonal communication are thoroughly discussed under this discipline. Behaviour depends

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on how people listen, observe, sense, ask and interact. Behaviour is a dynamic process depending on the experiences of individuals and the experiences of others related with the individuals.

Human behaviour is developed not in a vacuum but is shaped every time by the behaviour of others and environmental factors. The behaviour of a worker depends on the behaviour of his boss. If the supervisor is friendlier, trusting, informal, approachable and competent, the productivity of workers will increase and they will undertake more challenging jobs. The systematic evaluation of the factors influencing the behaviour of employees provides the basis for the effective performance of their jobs. Behaviour is caused and directed towards some specific goals. Behaviour is predictable by understanding people and situations. Different behaviour is perceived in different situations. This is the reason that different behaviour is exercised by different people. Beneath these differences, there are some common behaviour traits which may ordinarily be exercised by people. Therefore, it is possible to predict behaviour. The systematic study of behaviour may help to predict behaviour accurately. The cause and effect analysis, quantification of two variables of behaviour and experimental research provides important information about behaviour and its influencing factors. The common-sense observation of behaviour may or may not be correct as revealed by rigorous analysis and scientific research.

Organizational behaviour is generally confused with organizational theory, organizational psychology and human resources management. Organizational theory is the study of structure, the system, sequences and the process of organization. Organization behaviour, while studying all these subjects, delves into the behaviour of individuals and groups. Organizational theory is based on macro study, whereas organizational behaviour is a micro study of people's behaviour. Organizational psychology restricts its activities to psychological factors. Organizational behaviour considers and combines all the branches of study, e.g. science, technology, psychology, terminology, anthropology and other behavioural subjects. Organizational behaviour has become the basis of human resources management and development. The former is concept-oriented, whereas the latter is concerned with the technology of human development. The variables influencing human development are scientifically studied under organizational behaviour. Human resources development is successful with the use of the knowledge of organizational behaviour. There is a need for study of performance-oriented dependent variables, the search for cause and effect for human resources development which is possible through the use of concepts of organizational behaviour which helps personal growth, self-actualisation, modification and organizational development. Human relations, human activities and human resources management are activated, directed and channelized by the application of the knowledge of organizational behaviour which has become a field of study, research and application for the development of human resources and the organization as a whole.

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Check Your Progress

1. What is human behaviour primarily a combination of?
2. Why is the study of behaviour essential?

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organizational behaviour has four important roles or objectives in any organization—the human resources approach, the contingency approach, the system approach and the productivity approach.

Human Resources Approach

Organizational behaviour is mainly interested in the development of its human resources. The employees' growth and development in an organization are basic requirements for its continuous growth and survival. The success of any organization depends on the competency and creativity of its employees because they are the central points of every function of management. Traditionally, managers were important for deciding on task performances and carrying them out successfully under their directions. Employees cannot be treated merely as order followers; they are supportive and should be made more responsible. An organization has to develop a suitable climate wherein employees can improve their behaviour with job satisfaction for achieving organizational goals with efficiency and economy. Developed employees improve their performance effectiveness. Satisfied employees utilise their fullest capacities for task performance. Developed employees contribute to the development of the organization with much zeal and spirit and without creating conflicts and facing stress. If monetary incentives are given, it encourages working only as long as monetary benefits are given. However, if employees are developed, their capacities become increased for better work performances throughout life. The role of the manager has changed from that of a controlled approach to a supportive approach to employees.

Contingency Approach

Behavioural science is being used for solving problems which may arise at any time. Behavioural knowledge is being applied to solve these problems. One or few accepted principles cannot solve all the problems. Employees are therefore trained to face any sort of problems. They should have the capacity to meet the challenges of the environment. Employee-oriented leadership is better suited for solving problems than task-oriented leadership. When situations are much more complex, employees are to be developed to handle situations with the use of their capacities and capabilities rather than with the use of abstract principles. Different situations require different functions and behavioural approaches. It is known as the contingency approach because it believes that there is no such thing as the best

way to handle the problem. Solutions as per situations are more effective and useful. This approach encourages analysis of each situation before and after incurring the problem. The contingency approach is an interdisciplinary and system-oriented approach of management. There is no perfect style of management. On some occasions, the participative approach may be useful, while in some situations, autocratic decisions will be more useful. The effectiveness of task performance is contingent upon the situation, and organizational behaviour deals with these contingents to arrive at an appropriate decision in a particular situation.

System Approach

The system approach includes several subsystems which exist in an organization, and therefore affect each other. Managers have to look beyond immediate situations to foresee future situations. There is a need for a systematic and fruitful framework involving general relationships. The purpose is to improve organizational behaviour for effective management. A system is developed where people work in a congenial atmosphere. The theories of organizational behaviour are applied to the system for achieving organizational goals. Better organizational behaviour provides greater success of the system approach. Developed employees perform all the subsystems in an effective manner. The organization and society are benefitted by organizational behaviour. Better people have better organizational relationships wherein the objectives of individuals, organization and society are served. The General System Theory (GST) has been developed for the success of the system approach.

Productivity Approach

The ultimate objective of organizational behaviour is to increase productivity. With the given inputs, if production is improved, it is a symbol of productivity improvement. In other words, productivity is the production volume per unit of input. It is measured in terms of economic inputs and outputs. Better organizational behaviour increases the output in relation to inputs. The human behaviour is developed for performing jobs in an effective manner. If people's knowledge and skills are developed, their abilities to perform tasks also increase. If proper motivation is provided, people work to the best of their abilities. Motivation depends on the situations and attitude of the employees. Ability and motivation determine the people's potential performance. If the human performance is supported with adequate resources, organizational productivity is increased. Organizational behaviour influences people's knowledge, skill, attitude, ability and performance potential.

1.5 KEY ELEMENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The definition given in the above section has three facets—the individual behaviour, the organization and the interface between the two. Each individual brings to an organization a unique set of beliefs, values, attitudes and other personal

characteristics and these characteristics of all individuals must interact with each other in order to create an organizational setting. The organizational behaviour is specifically concerned with work-related behaviour that takes place in organizations. Organizational behaviour is a synthesis of many other fields of study and is built upon contributions from a number of behavioural disciplines. The predominant area of psychology is concerned with the study of individual behaviour. Other behavioural disciplines affect the group dynamics and the organizational system.

Psychology: Psychology is a science that seeks to study, understand, measure, explain and possibly change the behaviour of humans. Relative to organizational environment, it assists in understanding motivation at work, individual and interpersonal perceptions, functioning of personality, effects of training, leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction and attitude measurement. It also studies such behaviour patterns as fatigue, boredom and monotony that impede efficient work performance. It also studies methodologies for behaviour modification, so as to facilitate repetition of desirable behaviours.

Sociology: Sociology, as a science, has a major impact on the field of organizational behaviour. It involves the study of social systems in which individuals exercise their social roles in relation to their fellow human beings, be it within the family or within the organization. Some of the organizational processes considered are group dynamics, organizational structure, bureaucracy, power and conflict.

Social psychology: While psychology deals with individual behaviour, and sociology deals with group behaviour, the social psychology examines interpersonal behaviour. The social psychologists are concerned with inter-group collaboration, group decision making and integration of individual needs with group activities. Another area under investigation by social scientists is the effect of change on individuals and how people adjust to change both in individual and group context.

Industrial psychology: Industrial psychology helps to understand the individual reactions to industrial environment. It involves selection and placement of individuals into particular jobs through psychological tests, study of mental health as affected by physical industrial environment, impact of organizational structure on human performance and the types of jobs affecting safety and morale of workers.

Anthropology: Anthropology primarily studies the cultural impact on individual behaviour. It is our cultural heritage that builds our value system and our sense of right and wrong that in turn affects our norms of acceptable behaviour. The differences in behaviour under the same set of circumstances can be traced to cultural upbringing and the values learned in the cultural environment. Thus, the behaviour to some degree, can be predicted on the basis of cultural generalities.

Political science: Political Science, even though considered as the study of political systems, has many ingredients that directly affect human behaviour in organizations since politics dominates every organization to some degree. Many themes of interest directly related to organizational behaviours are political manipulation, allocation

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of power, conflict and conflict resolution, coalition for power and self-interest enhancement.

Economics: Economics aids in the understanding of economic conditions at a given time, economic policies of the government, allocation of scarce resources to different competing alternatives, and all these factors affect the organizational climate. Organizational behaviour has learned a great deal from such economic factors as labour market dynamics, cost-benefit analysis, marginal utility analysis, human resource planning and forecasting and decision making.

Engineering: Engineering, especially the industrial engineering branch, has contributed significantly in the areas of time and motion study, work measurement, work flow analysis, job design and wage and salary administration. Each of these areas has some impact on organizational behaviour.

Medicine: It is perhaps the newest field affecting organizational behaviour. The primary area of interest is work related stress, tension and depression. The study of causes and consequences of stress and use of medicinal drugs to reduce stress is fast becoming an area of study within the organizational setting.

Semantics: Semantics, one of the more recent disciplines, helps in the study of communications within the organization. Misunderstood and misdirected communication or simply lack of communication creates many behavioural problems. Accordingly, total, right and properly understood communication is very important in effective and efficient performance as per directives.

1.5.1 Importance of Organizational Behaviour

A study of Organizational Behaviour (OB) is beneficial in several ways. In the first place, OB provides a road map to our lives in organizations. Every one of us has an inherent need to know about the world in which we live. This is particularly true in organizations, as they have a profound effect on our actions and behaviours.

Second, the field of OB uses scientific research to help us understand and predict organizational life. This is not to say that this knowledge is absolute. The decisions and actions that people in organizations make are determined by a complex combination of factors. Besides, the field of OB is not a pure science.

Third, OB helps us influence organizational events. Though it is good to understand and predict organizational events, most of us want to influence the environment in which we live.

Fourth, OB helps an individual understand himself/herself and others better. This helps improve interpersonal relations considerably. Of particular significance are topics like attitude, perception, leadership, communication, and conflict, an understanding of which will change the very style of talking and functioning of an individual.

Fifth, the field of OB is useful for maintaining cordial industrial relations. If an employee is slow in his or her work, or if his or her productivity is steadily

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declining, it is not always because of denial of promotion or a poor work environment. The relations between management and employees are often strained for reasons which are personnel issues, not technical.

Finally, in the last couple of years, the Indian economy has been witnessing an upward trend; every sector in the economy doing pretty well, registering an overall growth rate of seven per cent per annum. In order to sustain this trend, effective management of all sectors of the economy, particularly the industrial sector, is of paramount importance. This is where OB comes into the picture. It is a discipline which enables a manager to motivate his or her subordinates towards higher productivity and better results.

Check Your Progress

3. What does the success of any organization depend on?
4. What is psychology?
5. What does industrial psychology involve?

1.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Human behaviour is primarily a combination of responses to external and internal stimuli.
2. The study of behaviour is essential because of the different nature of people. Besides individual differences, people are whole persons and total human beings.
3. The success of any organization depends on the competency and creativity of its employees because they are the central points of every function of management.
4. Psychology is a science that seeks to study, understand, measure, explain and possibly change the behaviour of humans.
5. Industrial psychology involves selection and placement of individuals into particular jobs through psychological tests, study of mental health as affected by physical industrial environment, impact of organizational structure on human performance and the types of jobs affecting safety and morale of workers.

1.7 SUMMARY

- Human behaviour, a complex phenomenon as it is, is most difficult to define in absolute terms. It is primarily a combination of responses to external and internal stimuli.

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- People are influenced by a number of diversified factors, both genetic and environmental, and the influence of these factors determines the pattern of behaviour.
- Organizational behaviour has been defined as the knowledge of people's behaviour at work. It is a meaningful solution to complex human problems.
- Human behaviour is developed not in a vacuum but is shaped every time by the behaviour of others and environmental factors.
- Organizational theory is the study of structure, the system, sequences and the process of organization. Organization behaviour, while studying all these subjects, delves into the behaviour of individuals and groups.
- Organizational behaviour has four important roles or objectives in any organization—the human resources approach, the contingency approach, the system approach and the productivity approach.
- The ultimate objective of organizational behaviour is to increase productivity. With the given inputs, if production is improved, it is a symbol of productivity improvement.
- Organizational behaviour is a synthesis of many other fields of study and is built upon contributions from a number of behavioural disciplines.
- The predominant area of psychology is concerned with the study of individual behaviour.
- A study of OB is beneficial in several ways. In the first place, OB provides a road map to our lives in organizations. OB helps influence organizational events, is useful for maintaining cordial industrial relations and helps managers and employees in many ways.

1.8 KEY WORDS

- **Semantics:** It is the linguistic and philosophical study of meaning, in language, programming languages, formal logics, and semiotics.
- **Human Behaviour:** It refers to the full range of physical and emotional behaviours that humans engage in; biologically, socially, intellectually, etc. and are influenced by culture, attitudes, emotions, values, ethics, authority, rapport, persuasion, coercion and/or genetics.
- **Social Psychology:** It is the branch of psychology that deals with social interactions, including their origins and their effects on the individual.

1.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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Short-Answer Questions

1. What is human behaviour? What are its causes?
2. Define organizational behaviour.
3. What is the systems approach to organizational behaviour?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Examine the various roles of organizational behaviour.
2. Explain the interrelationship between various behavioural fields of study and organizational behaviour.
3. Describe how the study of organizational behaviour is beneficial.

1.10 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 2 FOUNDATIONS OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

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Structure

2.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, we began the discussion on individual behaviour. We learnt that human behaviour is a mix of responses to external and internal stimuli. It is the way a person reacts in different situations and the way someone expresses different emotions like anger, happiness, love, etc. In this unit, the discussion on individual behaviour will continue. We will examine the factors that influence individual behaviour. The final section will examine the various behavioural models.

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the causes and categories of individual behaviour
- Examine the different behavioural models of organizational behaviour

2.2 FACTORS INFLUENCING INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

It has been established that certain characteristics of behaviour are genetic in nature, and a human being inherits a certain degree of similarity to other individuals, as well as uniqueness in the form of genes and chromosomes. Some of the characteristics such as physical traits including physical height, slimness, dexterity, intellectual capacity and the ability to learn and logicalize are all inherited and have a wide impact on behavioural patterns.

According to R.S. Dwivedi, the structures of the nervous system play a significant part in the emerging pattern of behaviour thus bringing about the integration of

human behaviour and personality. Some psychologists believe that some aspects of human behaviour can be explained in terms of neural activity and neuro-physiological processes. Dwivedi further explains:

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> 'Integration of human behaviour takes place because of the constant functioning of receptors, effectors and connectors. Here the nervous system is primarily involved in the connecting process. The numerous receptor cells attached to the individual's sense organs tend to convert physical and chemical events from the environment into neural events while the several effector cells attached to the muscles and glands convert these neural events into responses.'

These responses result in behavioural activity ranging from simple reflex action to the complex creative activity.

Behaviour is sometimes easily explained by laymen as a reflection of the state of the nervous system. This causal relationship is referred to continuously during our daily routine impressions and conversations. For example, when somebody loses patience quickly, we tend to brand him as 'stupid', and the behaviour is explained by a lack of intelligence where intelligence reflects a state of neural system. Similarly, a person whose behaviour is depressive is considered to be having a 'nervous breakdown'. In other words, it is implied that a man exhibits a certain type of behaviour because he was 'born that way', again pointing to genetic structure.

Causes of Human Behaviour

As discussed earlier, both scientific thinkers as well as behaviourists have always been interested in finding out the causes for a given human behaviour. Science has always been involved in explaining a phenomenon by looking at its causes and then establishing a relationship between a cause and its effect. For example, the cause of formation of water is mixing of two parts of hydrogen and one part of oxygen in a given manner. Accordingly, the effect of water can be explained by its cause. This relationship is scientific and every time, the same cause will produce the same effect. Similarly, the behaviour scientists want to find out the causes for why people behave in a certain way. If these causes can be established, then certain types of behaviour can be predicted, manipulated and controlled.

The assumption that the study of any subject begins in the realm of superstition has some validity. For example, the scientific field of astronomy started as astrology. Similarly, the study and prediction of behaviour has its roots in superstitious beliefs in supernatural phenomenon. Even though such beliefs are not supported by science, they are still socially prevalent. Any conspicuous event that coincides with some part of general human behaviour is likely to be seized upon as a cause. Many such beliefs have been extensively discussed by B.F. Skinner. He cites as an example, the belief of many people that the position of various planets at the exact time of the birth of the individual determines many aspects of his behaviour, such as whether he is temperamental, impulsive, trustworthy, and so on. Millions of people who read the daily horoscope would testify to this belief, even though these horoscopes describe only general characteristics and general predictions

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that could be interpreted to be applicable to any person, irrespective of when he was born. The 'science' of astrology is taken very seriously in most underdeveloped countries and even in the technologically and scientifically advanced countries, astrologers are seriously consulted. In India, for example, many business meetings are arranged on the advice of astrologers. Former Prime Minister of India, Indira Gandhi and Ronald Reagan, Former President of America have been known to have arranged important political conferences in consultation with astrologers. The position of planets at birth, as a cause, is not considered as predicting specific actions or unique aspects of behaviour of an individual, but only general characteristics such as whether the person is impulsive or thoughtful, even though some of these general characteristics may be explained as being responsible for some specific action of the individual. For example, a quick but wrong decision can be attributed to 'impulsiveness', that is identified by astrology. It is strange that there is a lack of serious questioning to its validity, even though the process proposes that all mankind can be divided into 12 monthly categories as far as their behaviour pattern is concerned.

Then there are numerologists who propose another cause of behaviour. This has to do with a person's name. They believe and propose that the choice of a person's name is not a coincidence but a predetermined and predestined phenomenon that is associated with the person's behaviour. Based upon this philosophy, certain patterns of behaviour are identified and predicted by the number and types of letters in a person's name. Each letter of the alphabet has been assigned a number. Thus, the letters of the name are replaced by their respective numbers. These numbers are then manipulated and an end result of a single number is obtained. This last number can be used to find some behavioural characteristics associated with this number, as explained by numerologists.

Common practice is to explain behaviour in terms of certain physical characteristics of a person, the most important of these characteristics being the lines on the palm. Palmistry or palm reading is often explained as a science and has been made popular by Cherio and Saint Germain, who practised the 'art' of palmistry and wrote extensively about it. The four major lines on the palm of the hand are the Life line, the Heart line, the Brain line or the line of education and intelligence and the Fate line. These major lines are supported by scores of smaller lines, crosses, stars, islands and branches. There are special lines about number of marriages and children and all these lines are supposed to predict not only how long the person will live or whether he will be rich or poor but also such behavioural traits such as intelligence, patience, restlessness, trust worthiness, and so on.

Another common practice is to explain behaviour in terms of the physical structure of the individual. It is sometimes said that the eyes betray the character of the person. Similarly, certain ideas can be formed about behaviour on the basis of whether the person is fat or tall or slim. Whether there is a correlation between body structure and behaviour has not been scientifically demonstrated. Even if there is such a correlation between the two, it is not always clear which is the

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independent variable and which is the dependent variable. For example, we cannot be sure whether fat people are jolly because, being at a disadvantage, they develop jolly nature as a competitive edge or whether jolly people are fat because they are free of emotional disturbances and enjoy their life by eating, drinking and not caring too much about their physique.

The theory of 'born' leaders suggests that some people behave in a certain manner, because they were born that way. The belief is based upon the assumption that certain behavioural characteristics are genetic in nature and are inherited. If we know that a person has certain inherited qualities and limitations, then we may be able to use our control techniques more intelligently.

Categories of Human Behaviour

There are two categories in which the causes of human behaviour can be classified. These are: (1) inherited characteristics and (2) learned characteristics. Let us explain each of these two in more detail.

Inherited characteristics

Some of the inherited characteristics that may or may not be changed by external forces and may or may not be important determinants of performance are as follows:

Physical characteristics: Some of these characteristics relate to physical height, slim body, vision, dexterity and stamina and have some bearing on performance. Manual dexterity, for example, results in quality performance in such jobs that require artistic manoeuvring. Similarly, tall and slim people are expected to dress well and behave in a sophisticated manner, and fat people are assumed to have a jovial nature.

Intelligence: Intelligence is primarily an inherited trait, even though children of some very intelligent parents have turned out to be less intelligent and vice versa. It is also known that intelligence can be enhanced by proper environment or by proper motivation. Einstein was not considered very intelligent during his earlier years. In any case, intelligence as a trait is related to certain behaviour. Intelligent people are easy to convince if the point is right and they can be expected to be much more stable and predictable.

Sex: Being a male or a female is genetic in nature and can be considered as an inherited characteristic. However, it is highly debatable whether being a male or a female in itself is indicative of any behavioural patterns. Man is expected to be tough while a woman is expected to be gentle. Men 'never cry' and women are 'highly emotional', are some of the stereotyped assumptions that have no basis in genetic influences. These behaviour are developed, if at all, due to differences in treatment that boys and girls receive in the family environment.

Even though some work roles are assumed to be the exclusive domain of women, such as nurses or airline stewardesses, these roles are being modified to accommodate men in these positions. As far as the administration of the management

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process is concerned, women in general do not differ from men in their operative behaviour.

Age: Since age is determined by the date of birth, it is a kind of inherited characteristic. Age may affect the behaviour in physiological as well as psychological ways. Psychologically, young people are expected to be more energetic, innovative, risk taking and adventurous, while old people are supposed to be conservative and set in their ways. Physiologically, with age, older people experience waning of some of their faculties such as memory, stamina, coordination, and so on, and hence the related behaviours change as well. According to Lehman, the peak of creative ability is among people between the ages of 30 and 40.

Religion: Religion and cultures based on it play an important role in determining some aspects of individual behaviour, especially those that concern morals, ethics and a code of conduct. Highly religious people have high moral standards and usually do not tell lies or talk ill of others. They are highly contented and thus strive for achievement and self-fulfilment. Additionally, religion and culture also determine attitudes towards work and towards financial incentives.

Learned characteristics

Some of the behavioural characteristics that account for enormous diversity in human behaviour are a product of our exposure to various situations and stimuli, both within the family and the outside environment. These characteristics are acquired by learning where learning is defined as a 'relatively permanent change in behaviour resulting from interactions with the environment.'

These characteristics involve an individual's attitudes, values and perceptions about the environment around him. They are the result of parental values and expectations and the values and norms of our culture and sub-cultures. Children learn the need and values of being honest and truthful and the value of love and affection from the family environment. If the parents are always fighting, if the father is always drunk or if the mother resents the child, it is most likely that the child will grow up lacking the warmth of love and respect. Similarly, a loving family instils certain positive values about life in the minds of the children.

The physical environment itself has a profound effect on the individual behaviour. Persons who have come through the rigorous routine of the armed forces or students who have been active sportsmen may have learned the spirit of competition as well as cooperation. Similarly, students who have studied in religious schools and convents may have learned different values about truth and human decency.

Since inherited behavioural characteristics are more difficult to change or modify, it is the learned characteristics that the managers want to study, predict and control. Hence these will be discussed in more detail in the following units, but a brief familiarity with this factor is necessary here. Some of these learned characteristics are as follows:

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Perception: Perception is the process by which information enters our minds and is interpreted in order to give some sensible meaning to the world around us. It is the result of a complex interaction of various senses such as feeling, seeing, hearing, etc. Sayings and proverbs like 'things are not what they seem' or 'all that glitters is not gold', reflect a sense of perception. 'One man's meat is another man's poison', is in a psychological sense an indication that different people see and sense the same thing in different ways.

Perception plays an important part in human as well as organizational behaviour. For example, if a manager perceives a subordinate's ability as limited, he will give him limited responsibility, even if the subordinate, in fact, is an able person. Similarly, we lose a lot of good friends due to our changed perceptions about them.

Attitude: Attitude may be defined as the organization of a perception within a frame of reference. It can also be described as the manner in which an individual behaves, reacts, thinks or perceives a particular object in a given situation. It is a tendency to act in a certain way, either favourably or unfavourably concerning objects, people or events. For example, if I say that 'I like my job,' I am expressing my attitude towards my work.

Attitude has three elements in it that lead to measurable outcomes. These are feelings, thoughts and behaviour. Feelings and thoughts can be measured by simply asking individuals about their feelings and opinions. Behaviour can be measured either by actual overt actions or simply by asking the person how he would act in a certain situation. By measuring and integrating these three elements, a person's attitude towards a given situation can be established.

In general, a person may have a positive attitude that is good outlook of life, or negative attitude that means continuous complaining about problems in life. Organizationally speaking, an employee's negative attitude about work may be reflected by substandard work performance, excessive absenteeism, excessive complaining about work environment or disobedience to rules of authority. These attitudes can be changed either by simple persuasion or by training and coaching. Kelman has identified three processes that act as instruments of change. The first is *compliance,* that is application of subtle pressure either through reward or punishment in order to change the behaviour, and expecting this change to be lasting.

The second process is that of *identification* with the person who is affecting the change and is acting as a change agent. This change agent could be a close friend who wants you to change and you respect and love him enough to do so to please him. In marriage, for example, both the husband and the wife make a lot of sacrifices and change their behaviour to please each other. The third process is the process of *internalization,* that is more permanent in nature. This means that the new attitude is integrated with the other attitudes and becomes a part of the person's

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total personality. This change may occur through internal soul searching and the desire to change that comes from within.

Personality: When we describe people as quiet and passive or loud and aggressive or ambitious, we are portraying an aspect of their personality. A set of traits, habits and characteristics comprise the personality of an individual. This may also include conditioned responses that an individual may express to a set of given stimuli which in a way also contribute towards creating an impression of an individual upon others. This personality may come out as warm and friendly, or arrogant and aggressive. Many psychologists contend that personality traits develop in the early childhood years and very few personality changes can be made after the childhood years. There are different types of personality traits. Some of them can be biological in nature while others may be learned over a period of time. Examples of biological traits include physical build and intelligence. The traits which are learned over a period of time are patience, open mindedness, outspoken nature, introvertness or extrovertness in behaviour, etc.

Some of these personality traits are highly influential in certain organizational operations from organizational behaviour point of view. For example, Tedeschi and Lindskold propose that people who are open minded seem to work better in bargaining agreements than people who are narrow minded. Similarly, people who are extroverts and outgoing are more likely to be successful as managers than those who are introverts.

2.3 BEHAVIOURAL MODELS

The basic purpose of model development is to understand human behaviour in an organization. Prediction and control of human behaviour are also used in models of organizational behaviour. The behaviour approach is used for controlling and modifying the behaviour of individuals and groups for effective performances. Models of organizational behaviour deals with development of organizational behaviour model and types of models of organizational behaviour.

Developing Model of Organizational Behaviour

This model illustrates the goals, parameters and factors of organizational behaviour. The model describes the abstraction of reality and simplifies the representation of real world phenomena. A model of organizational behaviour explains the behaviour at individual, group and organizational levels. The models are developed on the basis of dependent and independent variables.

Dependent variables

The dependent variables of organizational behaviour are explored to find the impact of behavioural factors on them. The skills and efficiencies of individuals are developed. Innovation and professionalisation take place. The organization develops subsequently. In brief, the productivity, turnover and job satisfaction are increased as a result of improved organizational behaviour.

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(i) ***Productivity:*** The refined and improved behaviour of employees has a direct reflection on productivity. The effectiveness, efficiency and economy of the organization are observed at individual and group levels. An organization achieves effectiveness when it achieves its goal. Efficiency relates to the qualitative performance of the activities. Economy is attained when work is performed at a low cost. The output per unit of production tells about productivity which is attained as a result of realising efficiency, effectiveness and economy caused by improved behaviour of individuals, groups and organization. Model framing requires anticipation and stipulation of the impacts of certain behaviour on productivity, effectiveness, efficiency and economy.

(ii) ***Turnover:*** The turnover will increase as a result of satisfied employees and modified behaviour. Employees are properly recruited, trained and motivated for achieving the organizational goals. They like position, power and influence. A congenial atmosphere helps them to achieve the organizational goals and personal satisfaction. Increased opportunities of promotion, innovation and satisfaction also have an indirect impact on behaviour, which in turn helps increase the turnover of the organization. The superior–subordinate relations are also helpful for enhancing the achievement and performance level of an organization.

(iii) ***Job satisfaction:*** An improved situation and group behaviour will increase the satisfaction of individuals. The expectations of the employees are met. The difference between the amount of reward and its expectation is the level of satisfaction. Organizational behaviour provides job satisfaction to employees. The quality of performance depends on the satisfaction of employees. Individual satisfaction is the legitimate result of organizational behaviour. It is observed that satisfied employees prefer to work hard and attend work without being absent. However, dissatisfied employees are prone to absenteeism, which may result in disruption in performance and quality. Satisfied employees as a result of proper behaviour and congenial atmosphere avoid the negative approach. They like to work hard and get job satisfaction.

Independent variables

The independent variables influencing the organizational model of behaviour are individuals, groups and the structure of the organization.

(i) ***Individual variables:*** Individuals having their own personalities, preferences, values, attitudes and leanings influence the work environment directly. The management cannot control these variables. Rather they have to use these factors for effective performances. The degree of influences of these factors are studied with perception, learning and personality. Although these factors cannot be changed totally, they can be modified to meet the requirements of the organization.

(ii) ***Group variables:*** Group variables are important factors influencing organizational behaviour. A group has more impact than the sum of individual contributions. Synergy (i.e. contribution of people in groups is more than the sum total of the contributions of each individual) is obtained through group variables. Group behaviour has more impact on an organization. However, if group behaviour is not controlled, it may damage more than the individual employees. The group behaviour is studied under several heads such as group dynamics, pattern, group decision, leadership, power and politics, inter and intra-group, conflict effects and resolutions. The group variables are studied and directed for effective performance, goals, achievements and individual satisfaction.

(iii) ***Structural variables:*** The structures of an organization have their own functional relations. Sophisticated structures have sophisticated behaviour. Straight-line communication and unity of command have disciplined behaviour. Multiple command may create conflicts. Formal relations have definite behaviour whereas informal organizations have more positive impacts on organizational behaviour. Selection, training, motivation, level of work stress, conflict, coordination and control are considered points of structural variables.

Types of Models of Organizational Behaviour

The models of organizational behaviour are developed with the assumptions of dependent and independent variables as discussed earlier. The models of organizational behaviour have developed through the historical development of management thought. In India, behaviour models differ from organization to organization and industry to industry. Varying degrees of these models are used even in one organization. For example, the finance department uses supportive models, while the production department concentrates on an autocratic model. There may be different types of organizational models, viz. feudal model, autocratic model, custodial model, supportive model, collegial model, human value model and contingency model.

Feudal model: The feudal model treated employees as inferior elements in an organization. The employees were treated sternly. The hire and fire principle was applicable in the organization. Leniency in work and performance was liable for stern punishment. A fear psychosis was prevalent in the minds of employees. People's desires and values were not considered for management purposes. It was well known as Theory X wherein actions, policies and procedures were considered superior to human beings. The carrot (money) and stick (threat of retrenchment) approach was used for motivation. It concentrated on formal organization and ignored human and social values.

Autocratic model: The autocratic model believes in the power and authority of the manager. Employees have to obey the manager's orders. Only the minimum needs of employees were met. It believes that higher salaries given to employees

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are wasted as they use them for unproductive purposes. Managers have position and official authority which is used to control employees' activities to get at least the minimum work done by them. Managers are considered superior and their orders are final. Employees are driven to work as this model assumes that nobody wants to work unless he is forced to work. Managers are given the maximum power to hire, fire and dominate all the employees. Managers are considered natural born leaders who are obeyed and respected in all areas. The autocratic model proved to be a successful management practice in developed countries like the U.S.A., England, Canada, etc. Even today, this model is used to manage trouble-ridden organizations. During an organizational crisis, it becomes the only resort of the management. The autocratic model has however proved to be ineffective in many cases because of increasing education and realisation of human values by sociologists and philanthropists. After human rights commissions were established in almost all countries, the autocratic model has been reduced to the level of following the rules, regulations and instructions of an organization.

Custodial model: The custodial model as given by the trusteeship model of Mahatma Gandhi has acquired popularity in recent years. Here owners and managers are considered custodians of resources and are bound to look after the welfare of employees to the maximum possible extent. It considers that capital and capacity are not only the monopoly of managers and industrialists, they belong to employees too. Employees are given opportunities to redress their problems, and can bring insecurities, frustrations and other problems to the notice of managers who undertake to solve their problems. Employees are entitled to security and benefits. They depend on the organization for their security and welfare. Trade unions developed the custodial approach depending on economic resources. The organization plans for pensions, adequate wages and bonus for increasing productivity. The employees get fair wages rather than subsistence wages. They depend on the organization rather than on the boss. They will be devoted to the development of the organization because the organization looks after the employee's welfare while in service and also after the retirement. Employees are interested in economic rewards and benefits. They contribute passively because money is the only motivating factor offered to the employees. Direct cooperation is not sought. Employees get satisfaction and security but psychological motivation is not used. Employees' values, preferences and attitudes are not given due consideration for motivation. Money is considered the most effective motivator, although in many cases they are not influenced by money alone. However, the custodial model is a more useful model for the development of an organization.

Supportive model: The supportive model believes in a supportive relationship. An organization develops leadership to ensure the maximum use of resources for achieving organizational goals. The leaders are responsible for the success and failure of an organization because money and power have very little impact

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on performance as discussed already in the custodial and autocratic model. Employees are considered active workers who have their own desires and preferences. Leaders use the attitudes and values of the employees for motivating them. It is assumed that the employees are not passive by nature, but that they do not get a favourable atmosphere to demonstrate their worth. It is for the leaders to support them and utilise their capacities for a better performance. If the employees are given opportunities, they would develop their capacities. The management has to provide and support the developmental activities of the employees. It is not only the benefits to employees but supportive activities for the development of employees, which can increase productivity of the organization as a whole. The psychological treatment of the employees, the sense of belonging with the organization and a feeling of participation help in the development of employees. An employee if developed contributes significantly to the growth of the organization. The supportive model does not believe in monetary support but lays emphasis on work support.

It has been observed that the supportive model has developed employees and managers. It is an accepted fact that the supportive approach is essential for organizational behaviour. Many organizations have developed as a result of the supportive model. The supportive model of organizational theory helps in the development of individuals, groups and structure. The supportive model is more effective in developed countries because of the developed attitudes of management and employees. However, the supportive model is not very useful in developing nations because of the restrictive social and cultural environment. Many big houses have successfully adopted the supportive model because of their affordable capacities to develop individuals and groups. Employees get opportunities of status recognition. They have awakened drives and positive attitudes. The managers and the employees participate together in the development of the organization while developing their individual capacities and efficiencies. Job performance is the real job satisfaction.

Collegial model: The basis of the collegial model is the partnership of employees and owners of an organization. The management works with the employees as a team. Employees are given responsible and trustworthy jobs. They are self-disciplined and self-motivated. Team spirit is observed in management. Collegial means a body of persons having the same objective. They have similar activities, work environments and understanding. Managers are co-workers and are not considered to be superiors than the employees. They contribute jointly rather than as leaders or bosses. They have to develop a team with employees and stress upon quality and complete performances. Their combined functions contribute to the success of an organization.

Human value model: Organizations should appreciate the human values of employees rather than economic values. People work in an organization not only for fulfilling their economic needs but devote time there for the purpose of getting satisfaction and fulfilling their social and psychological needs. They have

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great regard for human dignity. Economic value refers to the economic well-being of people. It is allocative; that is, the economic resources are to be allocated in such a way so as to give maximum physical satisfaction. Human values are incremental, i.e. self-generating and developing. The natural process of behaviour, i.e. stimulus, organizm, behaviour and consequences, are observed under human values model. It is briefly known as the SOBC model. The organization should provide appropriate stimuli for their change into consequences. The environment of the organization, inter and intra-personal relations, cognitive behaviour, monetary and supportive stimuli are exercised for influencing the organizms of employees. The need of identification, prediction of behaviour and person's cognition are used to influence individual behaviour. The stimuli may be either overt (external) or covert (internal). They may be physical, social, cultural and technological operants. It identifies the best variables causing positive consequences. Organizms influenced by stimuli may be physiological and mental to express overt and covert responses.

Contingency model: The contingency model of organizational behaviour assumes complex variables influencing the behaviour of individuals, groups and structures. Contingent solutions are designed to meet the challenges of growth, conflict, complexities and structural changes. Human attitudes and organizational processes are interviewed through communication, power and goal setting. Theory Z was developed by Abraham Maslow to demonstrate the contingent model. It is also known as the hybrid model wherein long-term employment and promotions are guaranteed. Individual responsibility and non-specialised careers are prevalent. Control systems are less formal. It fosters close cooperation, trusting relationships between managers and employees, and team work. This theory creates a humanistic philosophy and tries to meet multiple employee needs.

Check Your Progress

1. What does the theory of 'born' leaders suggest?
2. Define the learned characteristics of behaviour.
3. State the basic purpose of model development.
4. What does the supportive model believe in?

2.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The theory of 'born' leaders suggests that some people behave in a certain manner, because they were born that way. The belief is based upon the assumption that certain behavioural characteristics are genetic in nature and are inherited.

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2. Those characteristics that are a product of our exposure to various situations and stimuli, both within the family and the outside environment are known as learned characteristics of behaviour.
3. The basic purpose of model development is to understand human behaviour in an organization.
4. The supportive model believes in a supportive relationship. An organization develops leadership to ensure the maximum use of resources for achieving organizational goals.

2.5 SUMMARY

- Human behaviour, a complex phenomenon as it is, is most difficult to define in absolute terms. It is primarily a combination of responses to external and internal stimuli.
- It has been established that certain characteristics of behaviour are genetic in nature, and a human being inherits a certain degree of similarity to other individuals, as well as uniqueness in the form of genes and chromosomes.
- The theory of 'born' leaders suggests that some people behave in a certain manner, because they were born that way. The belief is based upon the assumption that certain behavioural characteristics are genetic in nature and are inherited. If we know that a person has certain inherited qualities and limitations, then we may be able to use our control techniques more intelligently.
- There are two categories in which the causes of human behaviour can be classified. These are: (1) inherited characteristics and (2) learned characteristics.
- Attitude may be defined as the organization of a perception within a frame of reference. It can also be described as the manner in which an individual behaves, reacts, thinks or perceives a particular object in a given situation.
- When we describe people as quiet and passive or loud and aggressive or ambitious, we are portraying an aspect of their personality. A set of traits, habits and characteristics comprise the personality of an individual.
- The behaviour approach is used for controlling and modifying the behaviour of individuals and groups for effective performances.
- Models of organizational behaviour deals with development of organizational behaviour model and types of models of organizational behaviour.
- The dependent variables of organizational behaviour are explored to find the impact of behavioural factors on them. The skills and efficiencies of individuals are developed. Innovation and professionalisation take place.
- The independent variables influencing the organizational model of behaviour are individuals, groups and the structure of the organization.

2.6 KEY WORDS

- **Chromosomes:** It is a threadlike structure of nucleic acids and protein found in the nucleus of most living cells, carrying genetic information in the form of genes.
- **Turnover:** It refers to the amount of money taken by a business in a particular period.
- **Job Satisfaction:** It is a measure of workers' contentedness with their job, whether or not they like the job or individual aspects or facets of jobs, such as nature of work or supervision. Job satisfaction can be measured in cognitive, affective, and behavioural components.

2.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What is perception?
2. What is the basis of the collegial model of organizational behaviour?
3. Write a short-note on group variables.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Explain the various models of organizational behaviour.
2. Examine the inherited and learned characteristics of human behaviour.
3. Describe the dependent and independent variables of human behaviour.

2.8 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 3 PERSONALITY

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Structure

3.0 INTRODUCTION

The concept of personality is often discussed in our daily routine and while coming across different people, one may associate different individuals with varied personalities. For example, one particular individual may be having a pleasing personality while another may be having an arrogant personality. Similarly, one individual may be having an aggressive personality while another individual submissive personality. Sometimes, we refer to disagreements among people which possibly arise due to personality conflicts. Personality of an individual can be found out from his behavioural traits or temperament. In this unit, you will study about determinants, structure, behaviour, assessment and development of personality.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Define personality
- List the determinants of personality
- Examine the development of personality
- Explain the theories of personality

3.2 PERSONALITY: DEFINITION, DETERMINANTS, BEHAVIOUR AND DEVELOPMENT

Personality of an individual plays an extremely important role in assessing the behaviour of a person at an organization. In case an individual who is holding a

senior position in an organization has a wrong type of personality, it may lead to a very bad impact on the relationship between superior and his subordinates and ultimately it may lead to protests and unrest at the workplace. Sometimes the personality difficulties are the root cause of labour strikes. No matter how good the superior is in technical knowledge or other behavioural characteristics, it is the 'temperament' of the superior that is crucial in ensuring a cordial interaction with subordinates.

Personality has been defined by Salvatore Maddi as follows:

> 'Personality is a stable set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commonalties and differences in the psychological behaviour (thoughts, feeling and actions) of people that have continuity in time and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment.'

This definition however has several aspects which must be considered. Stability of characteristics is the first important aspect which needs to be considered. Consistency in an individual's characteristics will actually define the consistency of the behavioural patterns that may be expressed by an individual. If a person's entire personality could change suddenly, then we would not be able to predict his personality traits. For example, if a person is sometimes warm and friendly and at other times he is cold and hostile, then we cannot conclude that his personality is warm and friendly. Accordingly, when assessing a person's personality, we need to look for characteristics that are relatively stable or that change only very slowly over a long period of time.

Understanding the 'commonalities and differences' is another important aspect. This helps in assessing the different aspects that an individual has similar to others and what are those points which actually make him different from the others and set him apart as an individual. Each and every person

- like all other people
- like some other people
- like no other person

Organizationally, a manager must understand that all subordinates are not alike and that each subordinate is unique and may or may not respond to the same stimuli, such as pay raise or reprimands.

Finally, we are interested in such aspects of personality that induce people to behave in a manner as required by social pressures or biological pressures. For example, if your boss wants you to do a job in a certain way, you will do it even if you disagree with your boss. That is a kind of social pressure. Similarly, you will stop working and go for lunch because you are hungry. That is a biological pressure. Hence, these behaviours do not require any explanation in terms of personality factors because the causes of such behaviour are clearly understood.

Determinants and Structure of Personality

Let us now study about the determinants and structure of personality.

Type A and Type B personality and behaviour

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One dimension of personality that is getting attention both from organizational as well as medical researchers is the Type A and Type B behaviour profiles. The Type A behaviour individuals are most of the times restless and impatient in their expressions. They generally aim at perfectionism and want to achieve results as quickly as possible in lesser amount of time. The other type of the individuals are those with Type B behaviour. These are generally more relaxed and patient in their expression. They do not feel the pressure of timelines. These individuals are more philosophical in nature and are however less competitive.

Some of the characteristics of the individuals with Type A personality are as follows:

- They are generally restless so they eat rapidly and keep walking or are generally on the move.
- They have the tendency to perform several tasks at one given time.
- They are generally impatient in their expressions; do not like to waste their time in waiting for others.
- They are also impatient about other individuals who are not really impatient.
- They have habit of starting with newer tasks before completing the previous ones.
- They normally schedule greater number of activities in lesser time though they are initially themselves not really sure that whether everything will be done or not.
- At times, they are involved in nervous gestures such as banging on the table and using clenched fists, etc.
- They generally do not have time to relax or enjoy life.

Thus, the Type A personality individuals are generally obsessive in nature. The managers who possess the traits of this personality pay attention to details, are hard-driving in nature and also keep their team members pushed towards achieving performance.

Individuals with Type B personality are generally the opposite to the Type A individuals. These type of individuals are more relaxed and sociable in nature. They have a balanced outlook in life.

Type A managers have difficulties in creating cordial interpersonal relationships and create a lot of stress for themselves and the people they deal with. They specially feel pressurized if they have to complete a task within a given deadline. Type B persons on the other hand, do put in extra effort in order to meet a deadline but do not feel pressurized.

Those persons who are classified as Type A have a strong desire and tendency to control all aspects of the situation, and if they are unable to control a situation, they react with anger and frustration. Because of their obsession with perfection, they are more apt to fear of failure and even if their work is good, they tend to underestimate the quality of their work. In case of negative outcomes, they blame themselves more than the external factors.

A comprehensive identification of Type A personality is given by Karen A. Mathews as follows:

> The Type A pattern can be observed in any person who is aggressively involved in a chronic, incessant struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time, and if required to do so, against the opposing efforts of other things or other persons. The overt manifestations of this struggle include explosive, accelerated speech, a heightened pace of living, impatience with slowness, concentrating on more than one activity at a time, self-preoccupation, dissatisfaction with life, evaluation of the worthiness of one's activities in terms of numbers, a tendency to challenge and compete with others even in non-competitive situations, and a free floating hostility. The major facets of 'core' elements of the behaviour pattern are extremes of aggression, easily aroused hostility, a sense of time urgency and competitive achievement surviving.

Research has indicated that such patterns of behaviour as exhibited by Type A personality profile, lead to health problems, specially heart related illness. In contrast, Type B persons may be hard working but feel no pressing conflict with people or time and hence are not prone to stress and coronary problems.

Assessment of Personality

While we know what personality is, we are interested to know how a given personality is formed. What determines an individual's personality? Personality can be compared to a jigsaw puzzle in which we are interested in finding out the sources of all the pieces in the puzzle as well as their interrelationships.

There are two broad categories of factors that influence the formation and development of personality. These are heredity factors and environmental factors. It is debatable as to which of these factors have a greater influence on the structure of personality. Some behaviour scientists argue that personality characteristics are derived from heredity factors and the right type of environment only brings them out. Others feel that the effect of environment is quite strong. According to Maier, 'knowledge, skill and language are obviously acquired and represent important modifications of behaviour. Learned modifications in behaviour are not passed on to children, they must be acquired by them through their own personal experience.'

Thus, a probable consensus can be reached that it is both hereditary and environmental factors together affect the personality development of an individual. There may be some environmental constraints or limitations at times which may not allow an individual to completely realize his potential. However, the complete

potential of an individual comprising both physical as well as psychological aspects may be determined by the hereditary aspects that is the complex set of genes.

Personality traits and individual behaviour

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There is an enormous number of human traits. It has been estimated that there may be as many as 5,000 adjectives that could be used to describe personality traits. As has been discussed before, personality is a set of relatively stable characteristics or dimensions of people that account for consistency in their behaviour in various situations. There are a few very important dimensions of personality which can be related to both interpersonal and organizational behaviour. These may be described as follows:

Authoritarianism: When an individual blindly accepts the authority, it is referred as authoritarianism. The individuals believing in this concept have a high respect for authority and follow all the directions extended by the authority extremely obediently. They adhere to conventional values, are generally conservative, endorse strong parental control in keeping the family close and together, are concerned with toughness and power, are closed minded and generally less educated.

Such people generally prove to be very good followers. This is because of their strong belief in the hierarchical order. They prove to be very good assets for a company when they work under the directions of a defined supervisor and they are extremely productive under an authoritarian organizational set up.

'Dogmatism' can also be closely related with 'Authoritarianism'. Dogmatism refers to expression of rigidity in one's beliefs. A highly dogmatic person is closed minded, and believes in blind obedience to authority and intolerance towards others. They are generally known as fanatics such as religious fanatics or political fanatics like hard core communists or right wing Nazis.

Bureaucratic personality: A bureaucratic individual also respects organizational rules and regulations but he differs from an authoritarian person in the manner that he may not blindly accept the directions of an authority. He also has respect for the authority; however this respect is not total and blind in case of a bureaucratic individual. Such individuals definitely value rules, policies, processes, regulations, subordination, formal and informal relationships in an organization. They are generally not innovative, do not take risks and are at ease in following established directives. Bureaucratic managers are better supervisors in types of work that are routine, repetitive and procedurized.

Machiavellianism: A sixteenth century author named Niccolò Machiavelli worked in the field of personality and identified personality profiles of the noble men of the day. The term called Machiavellianism has also been associated with the name of this author. This type of personality wishes to exercise a control over others simply by manipulating others. They do this primarily with the objective of achieving some personal goals. The individuals having this type of personality have high self-confidence and high self-esteem. They always take calculated steps and

do not hesitate while using others for their own advantage and selfish interest. Their sole objective is to meet their own objectives and goals. They believe that ends justify means and do not feel guilty in using unethical means to serve their own interests. They are skilled in influencing others, and they approach the situations thoughtfully and logically. They would not hesitate to lie if necessary, and they are not easily swayed by a sense of friendship, trust or loyalty. They are especially successful in exploiting structured situations and vulnerable people.

Problem solving style: These individuals indulge in different ways and means and they have their own style of making decisions. These facets are also reflected through their personality traits. For example, some of the people with this type of personality are well planned, thorough in their approach, pay attention to details, etc. However, some others are impulsive and they just go ahead with something which is extremely obvious. The problem solving style has two dimensions. These dimensions are:

(i) Collecting and organizing data.

(ii) Making decisions using the data and information gathered from the data.

Further, in the process of information gathering also, two styles are involved. These are:

(i) Sensation: The first style is known as sensation. Sensation-oriented people prefer routine and order, structured situations, and put emphasis on precise and well-defined details.

(ii) The second style known as intuitive style, involves individuals who dislike routine, dislike repetition and prefer new problems. They enjoy learning new skills but follow their instinct and jump to conclusions. Such persons often enjoy fantasy, daydream a lot and thus are subject to greater error of fact. They change their mind quickly and often do not finish what they start before going to a new project.

Evaluation involves making judgements on the basis of the information so gathered. There are two dimensions involved in the evaluation style. These are:

(i) Emphasis on feeling

(ii) Emphasis on thinking

Feeling type people are sensitive to conflict and try to avoid issues that might result in disagreements. They are emotional and spontaneous and base their decision on how they feel about the situations. They do not like to hurt other people and friendly relationships to them are more important than efficiency or achievement. Feeling type managers find it hard to reprimand their subordinates for inadequate performances and would rather advise, guide and help them.

Thinking type people are more logical, analytical and use reason when solving problems. They are unemotional and are unsympathetic to other people's feelings

when making judgements. They are very stubborn about defending their 'principles' and what they believe is right. They are organized and well-structured, and they carefully consider all options before making decisions.

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Introvert and Extrovert Personalities

Introvert personalities are generally shy in nature and they prefer to be alone. They do not freely communicate with others and may feel hesitant while communicating with others. The extrovert personalities are however different from the introverts and they are most of the times outspoken and outgoing in their behaviour. They are at times aggressive also and are capable of interacting effectively with people. According to L.W. Morris, the introvert is behaviourally described as 'quiet, introspective, intellectual, well-ordered, emotionally unexpressive and value oriented, prefers small groups of intimate friends and plans well ahead.' On the other hand, an extrovert is best described as, 'sociable, lively, impulsive, seeking novelty and change, carefree and emotionally expressive.'

From an organizational point of view, it can be assumed that most managers would be extroverts since a manager's role involves working with and through other people. One the other hand, an extreme introvert works best when alone in a quiet office without external interruption or influences.

Self-esteem

Self-esteem may be defined as the level of respect that one may have for himself. It may be defined as the measure of one's own confidence level. It is also indicative of the respect that one has for his capabilities and motivation standards. Self-esteem has been placed as a higher level motivational need of an individual as per the Maslow's model of hierarchical needs. Self-esteem can be correlated with traits like independence, creativity and assertiveness. The individuals with high self-esteem levels are generally very friendly in their behaviour. They are also affectionate and relate easily with people. They are good at interpersonal skills and are capable of appreciating other people for their positive qualities and strengths. Low self-esteem people are the people who are generally critical of others. They exhibit a depressing behaviour and most of the times indulge in blaming others for their own failures.

At the level of an organization, the people with high-esteem generally prove to be better performers than the ones with low self-esteem. The poor performance faced by the people with low self-esteem further reinforces their behavioural traits. According to Abraham K. Korman,

'People of high self-perceived competence and self-image should be more likely to achieve on task performance than those who have low self-image concerning the task or job at hand, since such differential task achievement would be consistent with their self-cognitions. This assumes that task performance is seen as valued.'

3.3 PERSONALITY THEORIES

Since personality variables reflect consistent and enduring patterns of behaviour, these patterns can be classified into certain categories, so that the behaviour can be predictable once we identify the pattern of behaviour as belonging to a given category. People in a given category would have a similar pattern of attributes, and personality theories tend to identify such attributes in order to group people into these various categories.

1. Psychoanalytical Theory

The Psychoanalytical theory of personality as a reflection of behaviour has been based primarily on the Freudian concept of unconscious nature of personality. Freud noted that his patient's behaviour could not always be consciously explained. This led him to believe that the personality structure is primarily founded on unconscious framework and that human behaviour and motivation is the outcome of such conflicting psychoanalytic concepts as the id, the ego and the super ego. Id is the foundation of the unconscious and is the base of libido drives. It strives for sexual pleasure and other biological pleasures and has animalistic instincts of aggression, power and domination. Ego is conscious in nature and is a mechanism to relate our conscious urges to the outside real world. It keeps the id in check through the realities of the external environment. While id demands immediate pleasure, whatever the cost, ego controls it so that these pleasures are granted at an appropriate time and in an acceptable manner. Because of difficulty of keeping the id under control, ego is supported by super ego. The super ego is the higher-level restraining force and can be described as the conscience of the person. The conscience creates standards of what is wrong and what is right and is generally subconsciously developed by the absorption of cultural and ethical values of the social environment. All these three Freudian elements are inter-related and each cannot exist in isolation from others. In order to create a 'normal' personality, there must be a balance in the relationship among these three forces.

2. Trait Theory

Trait theory visualizes personality as a reflection of certain traits of the individual. Even though there are many traits that are common to most people, there are many other traits that are unique to a person and are not shared by other individuals. On the basis of the traits theory, people can be described as aggressive, loyal, pleasant, flexible, humorous, sentimental, impulsive, cool and so on. Traits are the basic elements of personality and can be used to summarize behaviour. For example, if we see people behaving in an extrovert and forceful manner in most situations, we could label their personality as aggressive. Similarly, if a person is observed in different situations as letting someone else take the initiative in deciding what to do, we could describe his personality as 'submissive'.

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3. Self-Concept Theory

This theory is organized around the concept that personality and behaviour are largely determined by the individual himself. We tend to act in ways that are consistent with our own image of who we are. For example, a man known as a flirt would hardly stop at flirting. Carl Rogers is most closely associated with this theory. According to him, behaviour can be best understood by the internal frame of reference that an individual has for his own self. An individual himself is the centre of experience. His self-image is integral to how he views himself and his perception of how others view him.

4. Social Learning Theory

The social learning theory differs from the psychoanalytical theory in two ways. Firstly, personality development has been believed to be a result of the social variables rather than of the biological drives. Secondly, motives can be traced to known and conscious needs and wants rather than unconscious and latent desires. According to the learning theory, personality may be defined as the cumulative total of all the learning of a person.

'Reinforcement and punishment' approach has been used to understand personality according to the social learning theory. For example, one may be frustrated because of the external environment and this can actually bring forward aggression as one of his personality traits. Similarly, an individual's good behaviour may be rewarded by the society in terms of appreciation and this further helps in reinforcement of the good behaviour. Thus, it can be understood that there is a mutual interaction that exists between external environment and behaviour.

Check Your Progress

1. What is authoritarianism?
2. What is self-esteem?
3. What is trait theory of personality?

3.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTION

1. When an individual blindly accepts the authority, it is referred as authoritarianism.
2. Self-esteem may be defined as the level of respect that one may have for himself. It may be defined as the measure of one's own confidence level.
3. Trait theory visualizes personality as a reflection of certain traits of the individual. Even though there are many traits that are common to most people, there are many other traits that are unique to a person and are not shared by other individuals.

3.5 SUMMARY

NOTES

- The concept of personality is often discussed in our daily routine and while coming across different people, one may associate different individuals with different personalities. For example, one particular individual may be having a pleasing personality while another one may be having an arrogant personality.
- There are two broad categories of factors that influence the formation and development of personality. These are heredity factors and environmental factors.
- Personality is a set of relatively stable characteristics or dimensions of people that account for consistency in their behaviour in various situations.
- Introvert personalities are generally shy in nature and they prefer to be alone. They do not freely communicate with others and may feel hesitant while communicating with others. The extrovert personalities are however different from the introverts and they are most of the times outspoken and outgoing in their behaviour.
- Since personality variables reflect consistent and enduring patterns of behaviour, these patterns can be classified into certain categories, so that the behaviour can be predictable once we identify the pattern of behaviour as belonging to a given category.
- There are four major personality theories: psychoanalytical theory, trait theory, self-concept theory and social learning theory.
- Trait theory visualizes personality as a reflection of certain traits of the individual. Even though there are many traits that are common to most people, there are many other traits that are unique to a person and are not shared by other individuals.
- The social learning theory differs from the psychoanalytical theory in two ways. Firstly, personality development has been believed to be a result of the social variables rather than of the biological drives. Secondly, motives can be traced to known and conscious needs and wants rather than unconscious and latent desires.

3.6 KEY WORDS

- **Dogmatism:** It refers to the expression of rigidity in one's beliefs.
- **Introvert:** It refers to someone who is shy, quiet, and prefers to spend time alone rather than often being with other people.
- **Super Ego:** It refers to the part of a person's mind that acts as a self-critical conscience, reflecting social standards learned from parents and teachers.

3.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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Short Answer Questions

1. What are the determinants of personality?
2. What is the difference between introvert personality and extrovert personality?

Long Answer Questions

1. How is personality measured? Analyse.
2. Discuss the various theories of personality.

3.8 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 4 PERCEPTION AND LEARNING

NOTES

Structure

4.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about the concept and theories of personality. In this unit, we will discuss perception and learning. By perception, we mean the organization, identification, and interpretation of sensory information in order to represent and understand the presented information, or the environment. There are essentially four stages in the perception process, that is, receiving, selecting, organizing and interpreting. In organizational behaviour, perception is important because it is vital for employees to understand the tasks that need to be performed, what is acceptable behaviour while completing those tasks, as well as to clarify their roles within an organization. The unit will go on to discuss learning. Learning is essentially a permanent change in behaviour due to education and training. Learning is important because it directly affects an individual's behaviour within an organization.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Examine the factors that influence perception
- Discuss the characteristics of learning
- Explain the various theories of learning

4.2 DEFINITION AND PROCESS OF PERCEPTION

The psychological processes that allow an individual to adjust his behaviour is called perception. The behaviour of an individual is influenced by his personality, motives and efforts. The behaviour and performance provides satisfaction to the employee who gets stimulated to work more and develop his personality and work quality.

Behaviour is a victim of the environment, which is observed in the form of stimuli. The sensory organs perceive the stimuli as per their learning and personality. The reverse functions are also correct. Perception, if modified through adequate and qualitative stimuli, helps to develop learning and personality. Improved behaviour has better performance and rewards which provide more satisfaction to the employees. A satisfied employee tries to learn and work effectively. An organization grows with the developed employees. Perception is therefore an important and initial step for developing an organizational behaviour. It is a cognitive process which selects, organises and interprets the stimuli. It paves the base for behaviour. Although perception may not be a real-world presentation, it is an imaginary understanding of the situation. The behaviour of an individual is guided by perception. People perceive differently as per their learning and personality. The perceptual world of a manager is different from the perceptual world of employees. Social factors also influence the perception process. Employees coming from a poor family have different perceptions of an organization from those coming from rich families. The levels of education, family background and political situation have a direct impact on the perception level.

Definition

Perception may be defined as “a cognitive process by which people attend to incoming stimuli, organise and interpret such stimuli into behaviour.” Perception can also be defined as “a process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment.”

The environment is a stimulus to influence behaviour, because the stimuli are attended, organised and interpreted to arrive at certain forms of behaviour. The sensory organs, i.e. eyes, nose, ears, skin and tongue, are used to change the stimuli into behaviour through their attention, recognition and interpretation processes. The information or stimuli are not accepted by individuals unless they are evaluated and interpreted by the mental processing system. Individuals attend to the stimuli, recognise and translate them into meaningful information, which inspire them to act and perform the job. These processes are known as perpetual process. When employees get satisfaction through their performance, either by meeting their physical or mental needs, they perceive the organization in the right perspective. It helps them understand the functions and achieve satisfaction.

Components of Perception

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Perception is a process of sensory organs. The mind gets information through the five sense organs, viz. the eyes, ears, nose, tongue and skin. The stimulation coming to these organs may be through action, written messages, oral communication, odour, taste, touch of the product and people. The perception starts with the awareness of these stimuli. Recognising these stimuli takes place only after paying attention to them. These messages are then translated into action and behaviour.

Stimuli: The receipt of information is the stimulus which results in sensation. Knowledge and behaviour depend on senses and their stimulation. The physical senses used by people are vision, hearing, touch, smell and taste. Intuitions and hunches are known as the sixth sense. These senses are influenced by a larger number of stimuli which may be action, information, consideration and feelings, etc. The stimuli may be in the form of objects or physical commodities. The human body itself is developed through the acceptance of the stimuli. The mind and soul are the victims of these stimuli occurring in the surroundings of the people. The family, social and the economic environment are important stimuli for the people. The physiological and psychological functions are the result of these stimuli. The intensive and extensive forms of stimuli have a greater impact on the sensory organs. The physical work environment, socio-cultural environment and other factors have certain stimuli to influence the employee's perception. Perception begins only when people confront stimuli; that is, stimulating factors give information about the situation.

Attention: Stimuli are selectively attended to by people. Some of the stimuli are reacted to while others are ignored without being paid any attention. The stimuli that are paid attention depend purely on the people's selection capacity and the intensity of stimuli. Educated employees pay more attention to any stimuli, viz. announcement of bonus, appeal for increasing productivity, training and motivation. The management has to find out suitable stimuli which can appeal to the employees at the maximum level. If the attention of the employees is not drawn, the organization cannot expect proper behaviour from the employees. An organization should be aware of all those factors which affect the attention of the employees. During the attention process, sensory and neural mechanisms are affected and the message receiver becomes involved in understanding the stimuli. Taking employees to the attention stage is essential in an organization for making them behave in a systematic and required order.

Recognition: After paying attention to the stimuli, the employees try to recognise whether the stimuli are worth realising. The messages or incoming stimuli are recognised before they are transmitted into behaviour. Perception is a two-phase activity, i.e. receiving stimuli and translating the stimuli into action. However, before the stage of translation, the stimuli must be recognised by the individual. The recognition process is dependent on mental acceptability. For example, if a car driver suddenly sees a child in front of his running car, he stops the car. He recognises the stimuli, i.e. the life of the child is in danger. His mental process recognises the

danger after paying attention to the stimuli. If he does not pay attention to the stimuli, he cannot recognise the danger. After recognising the stimuli, he translates the message into behaviour.

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Translation: The stimuli are evaluated before being converted into action or behaviour. The evaluation process is translation. In the above example, the car driver after recognising the stimuli uses the clutch and brake to stop the car. He has immediately translated the stimulus into an appropriate action. The perception process is purely mental before it is converted into action. The conversion is translation. The management in an organization has to consider the various processes of translating the message into action. The employees should be assisted to translate the stimuli into action. For example, the announcement of bonus should be recognised as a stimulus for increasing production. The employee should translate it into appropriate behaviour. In other words, they should be motivated by the management to increase productivity. During the translation period, psychological mechanism commonly known as sensory and mental organs are affected. They influence perception. The incoming stimuli are interpreted and perception is developed.

Behaviour: Behaviour is the outcome of the cognitive process. It is a response to change in sensory inputs, i.e. stimuli. It is an overt and covert response. Perceptual behaviour is not influenced by reality, but is a result of the perception process of the individual, his learning and personality, environmental factors and other internal and external factors at the workplace. The psychological feedback that may influence the perception of an employee may be superior behaviour, his eye movement, raising of an eyebrow, the tone of voice, etc. The behaviour of employees depend on perception which is visible in the form of action, reaction or other behaviour. The behavioural termination of perception may be overt or covert. The overt behaviour of perception is witnessed in the form of physical activities of the employees and covert behaviour is observed in the form of mental evaluation and self-esteem. The perception behaviour is the result of the cognitive process of the stimulus which may be a message or an action situation of management function. Perception is reflected in behaviour which is visible in different forms of employees' action and motivation.

Performance: Proper behaviour leads to higher performance. High performers become a source of stimuli and motivation to other employees. A performance–reward relationship is established to motivate people.

Satisfaction: High performance gives more satisfaction. The level of satisfaction is calculated with the difference in performance and expectation. If the performance is more than the expectation, people are delighted, but when performance is equal to expectation, it results in satisfaction. On the other hand, if performance is less than the expectation, people become frustrated and this requires a more appealing form of stimulus for developing proper employee work behaviour and high performance. It is essential to understand the factors that influence the perception

process and mould employees' behaviour towards the corporate objectives and self-satisfaction.

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Several stimuli are observed everyday by individuals. They confront these stimuli, notice and register them in their minds, interpret them and behave according to their background and understanding. Employees confronted with stimuli select only a few stimuli of their choice and leave other stimuli unattended and unrecognised. Factors influencing the selective process may be external as well as internal, organizational structures, social systems and characteristics of the perceiver.

4.3 DETERMINANTS OF PERCEPTION

No doubt stimuli do play a significant role in the perception process as various factors relating to the perception process have been noticed by behavioural experts. The factors influencing perceptions are the perceiver's characteristics, object and situations. However, they can be analysed under specific heads such as the perceiver's characteristics, personal factors, internal factors, organizational structures and social conditions.

Perceiver's Characteristics

Perception depends on how an individual views the objects and situations. Some employees may perceive the workplace as incorporating favourable working conditions, while others may perceive it as a place of good pay. The perception is not actual reality, but it is the viewing of the reality which differs from person to person according to their respective characteristics. Perceptions of the object are influenced not only by individual's characteristics but also by the characteristics of other employees, the manager's personality and employee's views from their perception of the workplace. The characteristics of employees, viz. attitude, motives, interests, habits, experience, expectations, learning and personality, have a greater influence on perception formation.

Attitude: The attitude and aptitude of employees influence perception formation. If they have positive attitudes towards the management, they directly perceive the stimuli given by management. In case of negative attitudes, the employees suspect the management's approach. Employees of high aptitude have a desire and attitude for growth. They behave positively towards the management of an organization.

Motives: The motives and desires of employees cause them to view stimuli differently as per their level and angle. Helpful motives of the employees will always assist the management. If they desire to develop themselves and the organization, they will perceive objects and situations positively. Employees having low motives will not work sincerely. The perception will differ depending on different types of motives. An indecisive manager perceives his supervisors differently. Personal insecurity of a manager results in doubtful perception about his supervisors, irrespective of their intentions. People who are dubious are prone to see others as dubious persons. Motives are reflected in actions based on perception.

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Interest: The interest of individuals draws more attention and recognition to stimuli. Less attention and recognition lowers the impact of stimuli or objects on behaviour. If employees lack interest, behaviour pattern will be less effective, and the perception will be weak. Managers cannot influence the employees in their work culture. Since individual interests vary from person to person, the perception is also different. However, the management tries to create interest among the employees to have higher perception of the organization.

Habits: Habits die hard and therefore individuals perceive objects, situations and conditions differently according to their habits. Many employees learn quickly. Others are slow in perceiving a stimulus. Some employees are not bothered about the management. They do not perceive the object correctly. Some people work by smoking or chewing pan. Thus, the habits of people have different perception levels.

Experience: The experience of employees results in different levels of perception. A young employee takes time to understand the object and situation. Experienced employees generally understand objects quickly and correctly. However, in contradictory situations, it is difficult to correct aged persons, whereas the young are easily moulded towards achieving the objectives of the organization.

Expectation: Expectations distort perceptions. People see what they expect to see. If they see the object and the situation differently from their expectations, they get frustrated. They are unable to modify their behaviour. The employees may expect more pay and so they perceive the management from that angle. The real stimuli are not properly perceived if expectations exist there on. The management has to evolve expectations for proper perception.

Learning: Learning levels of employees have a great impact on their perceptions. It is an important factor influencing perception formation. Educated persons have higher perceptions than the less educated persons. Attitudes are developed according to the learning levels.

Personality: Personality has different levels of perception. The personality of a perceiving person considerably affects the stimuli transformation behaviour process. Young people perceive objects and situations in the original form. Experienced persons perceive the objects as per their personality levels. Perception influences learning which is a developing factor of personality. The personality has a wider impact on the perception process too. Persons can view objects and situations as per their personality levels. The age, sex, motivation, learning levels, etc. influence perception.

External Factors

The perception process is influenced by external factors which may be objects and situations. The external points related to objects and situations have great influence on the perception process. The external factors may be the size, interest, contrast, repetition, motion, familiarity, novelty and others.

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Size: The size of the object or stimulus has a greater impact on the perception process because the size influences attention and recognition in a more effective manner. Employees are greatly influenced by tall and well-built managers as compared to the normal-sized individuals. The engineering department pays more attention to big and attractive machines. Big-sized objects have a natural attraction and get more attention.

Intensity: Researchers on human behaviour have revealed that the more intense the stimuli, the higher the attention and recognition in the perception process. A strong- voiced manager has more impact on supervisors and employees. It is observed that managers use voice modulation to get the attention of employees. Bright letters and strong appeal have more impact on people than normal letters and low appeal. More attention results in a higher recognition and behaviour pattern. The intensity varies as per the needs of the organization. The same type of intensity may not be useful for all the situations and objects.

Contrast: Contrasting objects have more impact on behaviour. Employees pay more attention and recognition to contrasting objects and situations. Machines making noises are hardly noticed, but a machine coming to a halt is immediately noticed because of contrast stimuli. Normal communication and performance have less impact than abnormal and contrast communication. The purpose of contrast stimuli is to attract more attention and recognition. However, if the contrast is not helpful in drawing more attention, it should be avoided and more attention-drawing stimuli should be exercised for gaining a real perception of work behaviour.

Repetition: Repeated stimuli have more impact on performances than a single statement. Repetition has the advantage of being attention-catching. When stimuli are waning, repetition generates fresh attention and recognition. Supervisors repeat orders several times to have them followed by employees.

Motion: People pay more attention to the moving objects than to stationary objects. This is just the impact of eyes on the mind. Workers are more attentive towards working machines than stationary machines. The video films of some training programmes create more of an impact on employees than others.

Familiarity: Employees would like to hear and see those programmes with which they are familiar. Training programmes demonstrated in the language of the employees are highly attended and recognised. Examples which are known and easily understood are used for motivating employees.

Novelty: Novel actions get more attention. New ideas and model preaching will draw the attention of the perceiver. Changing jobs reduce monotony. Novel objects and situations are recognised clearly by the perceivers.

Situations: Situations have a great influence on people's perceptions. A favourable work environment develops a positive attitude and work culture because the perception process is easily channelized and rightly directed. The management style and functioning of the organization influences the employee's mental state

through attention and recognition. Work relations also have some impact on perception forces.

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Objects: Objects are external factors influencing the perceiver because he has no control over them. The physical and internal attributes of objects are influencing factors of perception. The physical and time proximity, complex nature of objects, presentation of messages and the territorial approach of the management have great impact on the perception.

Internal Factors

Internal factors are within the personal control of the perceivers. They use these factors when they so desire. They are based on the individual's psychological setup, economic and social background, learning, personality and motivation.

Psychological setup: Factors such as attitude, interest, preferences, likings and other psychological bent of mind distort the perception process. People perceive what they like to perceive because of their attitudinal and mental approaches. These factors are the outcome of not only the self factors of the individuals but their actions and interaction with other people. People working with employees help in the foundation of the psychological setup. One person's problem may be another person's satisfaction. For example, giving a higher bonus is a state of satisfaction to employees, but becomes a problem for managers.

Economic and social background: The employee perceptions are based on economic and social backgrounds. The employee's level of understanding depends upon their economic and social backgrounds. Socially and economically developed employees have a more positive attitude towards development rather than less developed employees. However, developed employees are prone to decision-oriented functions. Conflicts between managers and employees will increase in this case. The problems can be resolved only through proper perception processes.

Learning: The state of learning influences the perception process. Highly educated persons can easily and rightly perceive the management's problem. They cooperate in problem solution. On the contrary, less educated employees are less concerned about the management. They perceive the management as a separate and superior part of the organization, who tend to exploit the labour, irrespective of the reality. People perceive as per their levels of learning. It is therefore essential for the organization to make its employees knowledgeable and educated for their effective performance and behaviour. The learning of managers and workers is a twin requirement.

Personality: The personality of the perceiver as well as the stimulator have an impact on the perception process. The age, sex, race, dress, facial expressions and body postures of both the persons have a direct influence on the perception process. If the perceiver is female and the stimulator is male, the perceiver gets some influences only if she prefers males. Otherwise, the perception process will be distorted. The ethnic personalities have some influence on perception. Physical

and mental characteristics, work pattern and age similarities affect the perception process.

Motivation: The pattern of motivation in an organization helps to develop perception building. Motivated people have the right perceptions about the stimuli, whereas the loco-profiled workers are doubtful about the message given by the management for the development. The approach of the female managers to problems is given more attention and recognition. Motivational theories have revealed the perception processes of particular categories of employees. Attention is drawn towards their needs, satisfaction and achievement desires. The mental state of motivational desire influences the perception process.

Stimuli based on external factors receives varied degrees of attention and recognition. Internal factors, i.e. factors related to employees and managers, have different degrees of impact on the attention and recognition process while being translated into behaviour which results in performance.

Organizational Structure

The perceptual process is influenced by the organizational structure and process. The perceptual structure, perceptual grouping, constancy, context, defence, workplace and process have been recognised as important factors influencing the perceptual process.

Perceptual structure: The organizational structure influences the perception of employees and other people related to the organization. The departmentalisation, decentralisation, delegation of authority and other structural frameworks have important bearings in the mind of employees. An adequate amount of decentralisation makes employees feel that the organization is welfare-oriented. Similarly, too much centralisation gives rise to the feeling of suspicion in the minds of employees. Structure itself becomes a flowchart of perception. Work relations and the decision-making authority provide an important understanding of organizational perception. If the structure is viewed positively by the employees, they willingly contribute to the development of the organization.

Perceptual grouping: The manager generally groups all the stimuli together to influence the employees. The grouping is done based on closure, continuity, similarity and proximity. The closure doctrine of grouping is based on the Gestalt Principle of psychology wherein the individuals perceive the whole object although the whole unit does not exist. For example, the manager perceives that all the members cooperate with him in achieving computerisation, whereas some members really oppose mechanisation. The manager tries to close the disagreement and maintains uniformity in agreement for mechanisation. On the other hand, if the members do not withdraw their disagreement, they observe their individual perceptions.

The continuity principle emphasises that the stimuli should continue to make an impact on the perceiver. Discreet stimuli may however distort the perception process. The continuity principle is different from the closure principle as missing

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stimuli are applied in the latter case, whereas a continuous link is maintained in the former case. It is observed that only continuous and related stimuli are easily attended and recognised. The obvious and continuous flow of stimuli may produce the desired behaviour.

The similarity principle assumes that similar stimuli are easily attended, recognised and perceived. The similarity has its own impact on the employees. For example, employees wearing special clothes at the workplace automatically carry the message of the organization. Similarity in age, sex, education and other characteristics have a direct impact on the employee's perception.

The proximity principle refers to the grouping of the segments into one unit. Nearness of stimuli will be perceived as wholesome for the group. All the stimuli are considered one because of physical proximity. For example, all the employees in one cadre will be considered as one group which is stimulated by the proximity of stimuli. Departmental employees are considered as a single group employees because of proximity. They are motivated on the basis of proximity stimuli.

Perceptual constancy: Perceptual constancy plays an important role in the perception process. The stability and unchangeability of objects help in the constant perception process of people. The constancy of stimuli helps in easy perception because people become accustomed to the stimuli. The size, shape, place and colour of objects and situation are easily observed if they are constant. Constant stimuli make the perception process easy and effective.

Perceptual context: The context of the stimuli with reference to objects and situations has a meaningful impact on the perceiver. If the perceiver has the confidence that the stimuli are relevant to their work and awards, they may pay more attention to the perception process, policies and objectives relevant to employees. Welfare is paid more attention. Verbal communication in the relevant context is given more perceptual consideration.

Perceptual defence: The defensive role of the management is well recognised by the employees. There are many areas where employees develop conflicts which are resolved by the management. Such functions which provide defence to conflicting views are given more importance by employees. People like to defend their professions, work and work relations, if they are satisfied. On the contrary, dissatisfied workers criticise their own work and workplace. Many workers perceive conflicts as not being very serious. They only perceive conflicts as casual and to be expected, without any significant features. Some employees however find conflicts alarming. They react to warning signs and perceive the situation differently. Managers can find different perceptions for their actions because they view the situation from the angle of defence.

Perceptual workplace: The perceptual process is affected by the workplace too. The climate temperature, noise, smoke and other factors have a direct bearing on the perception and psychological traits of employees. Consequently, the perceptual process is different for different employees. Some employees develop

a positive perception while others develop a negative perception of the workplace. All employees perceive the same situation and object differently because of the varied nature of their workplace.

Perceptual process: The relationship between employees and managers is crucial in the perceptual process. Employees may perceive a low output with pleasure to influence their supervisor. The management has a different perception of performance and evaluation. Some may perceive a self-fulfilling prophecy by the management, when they have too high or too low expectation from employees. High expectation inspires managers to motivate their employees positively. Managers develop subjective attitudes many times about the performance and process. Besides, the employees' efforts are also considered for performance and process valuation. During the work process, some employees are troublemakers and some are loyal. The perceptual process is an important factor for the perception process of management and employees.

Social Factors

Social conditions have much influence on the perception process. Perceivers and the perceived objects have complex characteristics. They are perceived differently in different situations. The attributes of objects are important considerations influencing the selectivity process of perception. Attributes of objects, the subject, the situations and the perceiver have become so important that a separate theory known as attribution theory has been developed under the perception theory. Social factors consider how one person behaves towards the other person and how other people behave towards him. The interaction between the manager and his subordinates is considered under social factors which include the stereotyping effect, the halo effect, contrast effect and projection.

Making Judgements about Others or Stereotyping

The perception process takes the shortest method in some cases and considers only routine effects. Stereotype judgement is based on an ideal situation or the type of impression formed about the group. It is the consideration of individual's characteristics as being representative of the whole group. If an employee is found well behaved, the whole group of employees is considered to be good. If, in an organization, a manager is helpful, it is generalised that the organization is very helpful and sympathetic towards employees. It is an inductive method wherein conclusions are aggregated from individual performance; that is, it accumulates particular cases to arrive at general conclusions. Stereotyping is generalisation which has the advantages of being time saving, accurate and common. For example, assume that the management has previously found that sportsmen and athletes have been very successful workers in the factory. They were ambitious, hardworking and can easily overcome adverse situations. In future selection process, the management may appoint such sportsmen and athletes without undergoing many selection procedures. Similarly, many decisions are taken on the basis of the stereotyping effect. The generalisation may prove disastrous if it is relied on heavily

without proper scrutiny and examination of individual characteristics. The most important stereotyping effects are observed in the form of age, sex, nationality and social status.

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The stereotyping effects under social perception consider the attributes, traits and other qualities of a member of a social organization. These qualities are generalised as the qualities of the social organization or group. However, there may be perceptual errors, because the generalised attributes and qualities may not be found in all the cases. Therefore, the perception process takes into consideration the amount of perceptual errors when deriving conclusions based on stereotyping effects. Favourable and unfavourable traits are always calculated and evaluated to find their impact on the behaviour or decision taken. Stereotyping has become an important factor of social perception, which is based on ethnic groups—socio-economic groups, demographic groups and so on. The individual difference in the group is recorded to evaluate the perceptual errors in arriving at stereotyping effects.

The belief factor in stereotyping effects has become an important tool to arrive at certain decisions. One can conclude that an organization has a democratic manager. The common characteristics are the basis of belief. If a manager belongs to the said democratic organization, one can believe that he will also have the same characteristics. The errors may be there in belief because of ignoring variations in characteristics and holding mistaken beliefs. The beliefs or stereotyping effects are modified from time to time to arrive at correct perception behaviour and decisions.

Check Your Progress

1. What is behaviour an outcome of?
2. How does motivation help to develop perception?

4.4 MEANING, DEFINITION, NATURE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF LEARNING

Learning has been defined by several authors in different ways. All of them have accepted that learning shapes human behaviour. Employees may learn knowingly or unknowingly in the organisation. Tim R.V. Davis and Fred Luthans have defined learning as a cognitive and modelling process for acquiring knowledge and experience. They have analysed different theories of learning for explaining the learning process. Robbins has stressed upon learning as a “relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience.” He has opined on experience only, although an employee might change his behaviour as a result of a social process. Learning is a process of observation, action, reaction and response to some stimuli. Learning is a process of change in behaviour. The outcome of

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learning is a permanent change in behaviour. Therefore, learning is a permanent change in behaviour as a result of a cognitive process. A temporary change in behaviour is not learning because it is purely reflexive. Change in behaviour is the necessary outcome of learning. If it is purely theoretical or attitudinal, it would not be learning. A cognitive change process in the mind of an employee resulting in behaviour is learning. "Learning is the process by which an activity originates or is changed by reacting to an encountered situation, provided that the characteristics of the change in activity cannot be explained on the basis of native response tendencies, maturation or temporary states of the organism." This definition includes almost all the attributes of learning. It reveals that learning is the inferred process which influences behaviour. The learning is an original activity for the employee. He gets new things or may change his process as a result of observation and cognitive processes. The learning can take place only when the employee reacts to the stimuli, evaluates and accepts the stimuli for changing his behaviour. Learning must be deliberately accepted. It does not include maturity, temporary changes in behaviour and the natural process of behaviour. Behaviour is learned through a cognitive process. It is not a spontaneous and natural process. A child knowing the language of her mother is not learning, because it is a natural process. Children learn good habits and sports on account of their environment which is a stimulus of learning. The learning process starts with motives and continues with cues, responses and reinforcements until the learner acquires the required changes in behaviour permanently. Learning to drive a car is a good example of a learning process.

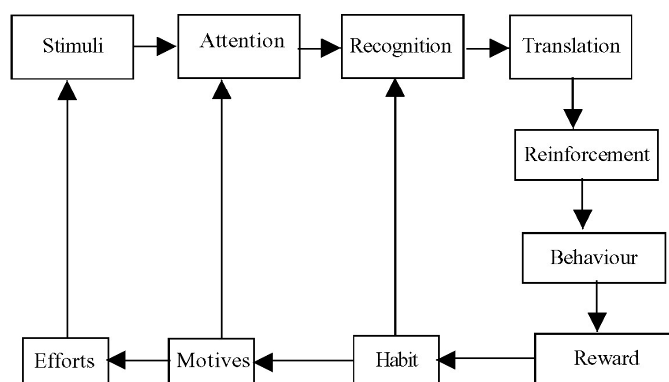


Fig. 4.1 *The Learning Process*

The learning process is a mental and habit formation process. Attention is paid to certain stimuli used for learning which are recognised and translated into reinforcement and behaviour. If the learner gets a reward for his improved behaviour, he forms it into behaviour. Proper habits motivate the employee who makes efforts in the right direction. The efforts result in satisfaction and become a stimulus for further learning. The employee pays further attention, recognises and translates stimuli to strengthen habits. This process continues and the employee learns and effects permanent changes in his behaviour which become a part of his habits.

The habit helps in recognition of good behaviour. A habit motivates an employee to perform better. It helps him pay proper attention. He learns constantly and effects a permanent change in behaviour. Learning improves behaviour. This process continues and the employee learns in the process.

The Learning Process

Stimuli: Stimuli are any objects and language which draw the attention of people. Employees get stimuli from the actions of their superiors. Superiors tell and advice employees who pay attention to these stimuli. All the stimuli may not be fully attended to. Literary works are also stimuli which are given attention by educated employees. Stimuli are provided at jobs by perks and scores. Universities and colleges also impart stimuli for learning. Stimuli provides quality performances. Practical training and vocational teaching are forceful stimuli. The stimuli available at work are numerous. Social, political, cultural and geographical factors provide varieties of stimuli for learning.

Attention: The degree of attention depends upon the nature of stimuli. All stimuli are not paid attention to. Technical and interesting stimuli are highly attended. Career oriented stimuli are generally accepted by employees. The personality levels of employees influence their desires to learn, motives for need fulfilment and tension reduction. Employees having more values of life pay more attention to the stimuli for acquiring more knowledge and experience. People's creative attitude are favourable factors for learning and paying more attention to available stimuli.

Recognition: Attention-paid stimuli are recognised as acceptable factors of improvement and new life styles. Employees paying attention to stimuli are recognising the stimuli for learning purposes. The levels of recognition depend upon the levels of values, preferences, needs and desires of the employees. When objectives are unclear, employees do not pay attention and do not recognise the training as a fruitful process of improvement. In the learning process, unambiguous activities must be observed for recognition by employees as useful factors for their well being and satisfaction.

Translation: Recognised stimuli are evaluated at the mental level to eliminate the irrelevant points for accepting a part of the stimulus for changing behaviour. The evaluation and appraisal of the recognised stimuli helps in reinforcement. An activity will not take place unless it is found useful by employees. The translation and evaluation process is a crucial point for implementing the stimuli in behaviour through reinforcement. Employees behave properly through attitude changes, objectivity, mental and physical development. It is observed in better performances.

Reinforcement: Reinforced perception is learning. The perception process includes stimuli, attention, recognition, translation and behaviour. Perception leads to learning, but perception itself is not learning unless it is reinforced. Repeated action is reinforcement. Reinforcement may be positive, negative, punishment and extinction. Learners learn as per their perception levels. Generally positive reinforcement is more effective for making permanent changes in behaviour.

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Behaviour: Learning changes behaviour through reinforcement of perceived knowledge. It makes permanent changes in behaviour. A temporary change in behaviour is not learning. Positive behaviour gives rewards to employees.

Reward: Employees expect rewards for learning. If the translated behaviour provides a reward, it is accepted, otherwise it is not accepted. Employees develop their behaviour into habits. Rewards may be monetary or non-monetary. A non-monetary reward includes job satisfaction, status recognition and task achievement. Professional satisfaction is attached to the behaviour which influences the form of reward. The behaviour of employees decides the level and form of reward. The reward reinforcement makes employees learn more than positive reinforcement behaviour.

Habits: A permanent change in behaviour becomes a habit which helps continuous improvement in behaviour and performance. Employees develop the habit of self-appraisal and development. It helps to instil creativity and confidence in employees who are encouraged to behave properly again and again. Right behaviour is reinforced repeatedly. Habits help the development of capability and capacity of employees. Habits translate theoretical knowledge into practice. Skill development requires habitual performance.

Motives: Motives depend on the level of satisfaction. Employees getting more satisfaction through learning develop high motives. Less satisfied learners have low motives. Learning is complete only when motives are fully realised and translated into efforts.

Efforts: Habits help achieve good efforts and performance. This is a continuous process. Efforts are the automatic outcome of good habits which are acquired through the learning process. Self-development is possible through self-effort. Employees willing to develop themselves are self-motivated and effort-oriented. Efforts become the stimuli for learning after development of the standard of employees. Self-learning has been observed when employees have developed good habits and right motives. The learning process itself provides all these opportunities.

The learning process is totally associated with the mental process, inspiration and action. Stimuli reach only the unconscious mind. If it pays attention to stimuli it goes to the inner-level of the mind at subconscious level. Attention is paid by the subconscious mind which analyses the stimuli and filters out irrelevant stimuli from the employee's angle. The relevant stimuli are attended to, but a smaller portion of the stimuli attended is recognised by the clear mind. Recognition of stimuli is done only by the clear mind. The stimuli recognised further go to the inner part of the mind only when the clear mind has received them and the feeling cell of the mind evaluates their utilities. A felt mind has the capacity to evaluate and appraise the recognised stimuli. The evaluated stimuli if found correct are stored at the level of the feeling cell of the mind. The stored stimuli or retention work for mobilising the function through reinforcement. Repeat and recall are mobilising factors for action.

Similarly, a tense mind gets reinforcement; it compels and forces the heart to activate the body for action and behaviour. Intensity at the mental level activates the heart to function. The level, quality and direction of intensity give the behavioural function a real shape. Behaviour is the outcome of intensified stimuli and the heart's activitisation. Behaviour producing reward helps the mental process to think and rethink again and again at all the five levels of the mind. The reward itself becomes a stimulus which is attended, recognised, translated and reinforced respectively by the unconscious, subconscious, clear, felt and intense mind. It reaches to the heart level, and consequently this process develops into a habit. Permanent changes in behaviour converge in the form of a habit.

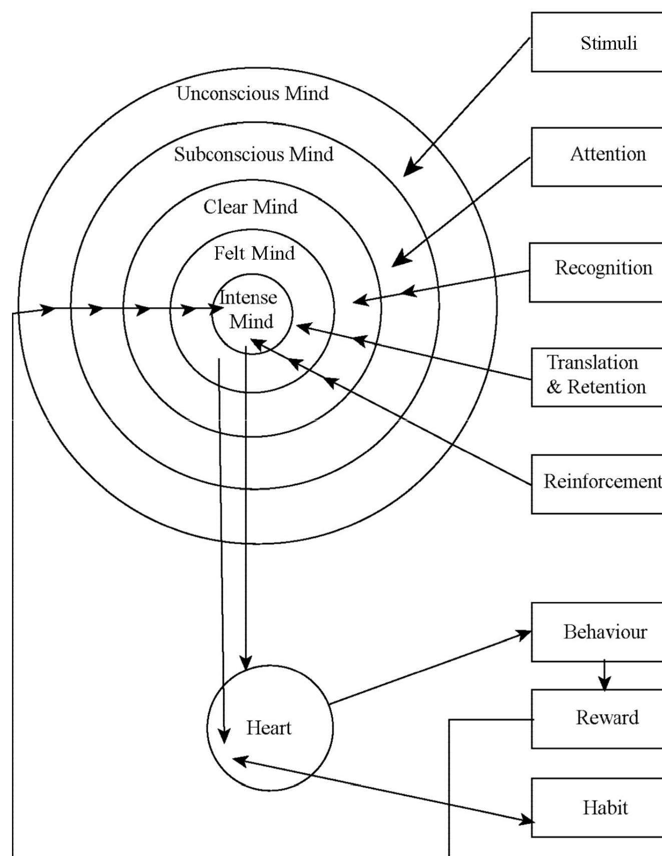


Fig 4.2 Biological presentation of the learning process

Employees learn to behave properly. The process will be more effective if each and every process is given due importance and placed at the respective level.

4.5 THEORIES OF LEARNING

Theories of learning have been developed as models of learning which explain the learning process by which employees acquire a pattern of behaviour. Inborn ability

and aptitude to learn new skills and the degree to which the learner participates in the process are considered under models of learning. Some models believe that individuals cannot learn independently. They require the help of experts and personal involvement in the learning process. Other theories believe that employees can learn by observation. Their drive and motives are helpful for the learning process. No one can learn unless they are willing to learn. Employers have to provide adequate opportunities and incentives to employees so that they can get drives for the learning purpose. It is also believed by some theorists that learning is a stimulus – response process. Stimuli are essential for the learning purpose. The stimuli provides understanding and insights to the employees. The learning process helps further learning. Previous learning help further learning. For example, learning of language and mathematics helps in the learning of higher education. Learning is a constant process which provides reinforcement to employees to avoid forgetfulness and take up learned behaviour. The basic purpose of any theory is to explain a phenomenon in a better manner so that a learner can acquire it easily and permanently. A perfect theory explains how, when, why and other aspects of learning. Although there is no perfect and universal model of learning, theorists have devised models of learning under classical, operant and social.

Classical Model of Learning

The classical model of learning developed with experience of the material process accompanied with learning stimuli. It was said that Panlou designed this process. In Indian mythology, some examples have been observed where the learner took the assistance of natural phenomena to make a pupil learn a new process of functions. Ivan Pavlov, a Russian physiologist, observed that a dog started secreting saliva with the ringing of a bell, as the ringing of the bell was accompanied by the showing of meat to the dog. It is a natural phenomenon that a dog secretes saliva when meat is put before the mouth of dog. If the natural phenomenon known as unconditioned stimulus is accompanied by an artificial phenomenon known as conditioned stimulus, the dog generated a conditioned response ultimately, as the process was repeated constantly. The unconditioned response, i.e. the secreting response, becomes a conditioned response after sometime as the dog learnt that the ringing of a bell meant the availability of meat.

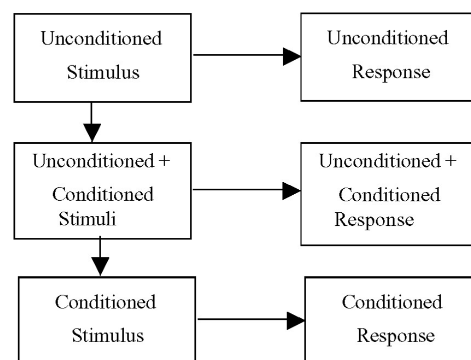


Fig. 4.3 *Classical model of learning*

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The classical model of learning believes that the unconditioned and conditioned stimuli would be repeated several times to get the net result of a conditioned stimulus which would be a conditioned response. In the Pavlov theory, the dog learnt to secrete saliva (conditioned response) at the ringing of a bell (conditioned stimulus), after repeatedly performing the functions of unconditioned stimulus (showing meat) and conditioned stimulus (ringing bell) simultaneously. Later on, the unconditioned stimulus was separated from the conditioned stimulus to get a conditioned response. Employees can be conditioned accordingly. The conditioned stimulus may be changed to get the result of second or third conditioned stimulus. Employees can learn the new conditioned stimuli if they are repeatedly given new stimuli along with the old unconditioned stimulus. The monetary incentives are generally accepted as the unconditioned stimuli for motivating employees. If these stimuli are accompanied with non-monetary incentives for some period, employees learn to work hard with non-monetary incentives. People have a natural liking for dance, drama, exhibitions, etc., which can be used for getting conditioned response from them. Learning while you work in the factory provides conditioned response to the employees. Reinforcement of the unconditioned stimulus and conditioned stimulus is needed to get a conditioned response. Conditioned stimuli with reinforcement help in learning. Reinforcement makes the conditioned stimulus behave as an unconditioned stimulus to get its natural response.

Classical conditioning is passive and creates reflexive behaviour. It is elicited. It is a natural process which may be useful in the primitive stage of an employees knowledge. An advanced employee may not get the benefit of classical conditioning which is purely a formation of a Stimulus - Response link habit. Repeated pairing of a conditioned stimulus with an unconditioned stimulus would result in a conditioned response. Learning car driving is based on stimuli-response (S-R) behaviour where the driver is immediately alerted to a response as he confronts a boy in front of his running car, i.e. conditioned stimulus. Initially he starts with unconditioned (natural) stimuli and later on he develops conditioned (artificial) stimuli. In Indian industries, classical conditioning is an important method of learning when employees start with certain natural phenomena along with an artificial work style to arrive at new methods of working.

Operant Model of Learning

The operant or instrumental model of learning is a developed form of classical learning, i.e. the S-R link habit. Employees behave in a particular manner because they would like to get a reward (Response). Reward or the desired results acquire certain behaviour traits. Reward creates drives and motives to acquire a certain behaviour amongst employees. B.F. Skinner, a Harvard psychologist, propagated operant learning. He argues that behaviour increases and develops to acquire certain benefits. The desired behaviour is the outcome of acquired benefit or reward. Behaviour which is not rewarded is not accepted by employees. The reinforcement of behaviour is contingent upon the reward. Employees work hard to get additional benefits. The learning process starts with the reward or response.

Corporate functions are improved by learned employees for the sake of customer satisfaction, employee productivity and shareholder wealth. The learning takes place for the said responses. The classical conditioning has the stimulus as the beginning of learning, whereas operant learning starts with the response which becomes a stimulus for the learning process as has been explained in Fig.4.4. The reward develops habits, motives and efforts for providing them with stimuli for learning. The employees pay more attention, recognise properly and translate their recognition into behaviour. It is a clear fact that learning starts with reward and performance satisfaction. People do not like to learn a process which is not rewarded. Behaviour is improved through learning for rewards and benefits. In the absence of a reward and response, behaviour is not shaped, and the learning process does not take place or continue in the future. The environment of the factory becomes a stimulus for learning. It is the reverse of classical learning where the stimulus provides the response.

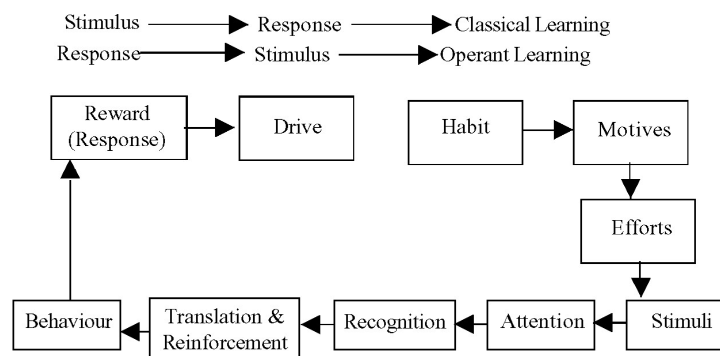


Fig. 4.4 *Operant learning*

The reward or response itself becomes a source of drive and motivating factors. The drive can be developed by a variety of responses or events. The drive helps to develop the habit of learning for achievement. The habit is developed or learned through motives which improve the efforts of the employees. Efforts provide satisfaction because they feel happy while performing a job. Effort encourages and becomes a stimulus for learning. More attention is paid to job content and context, because it has been recognised as a source of reward. Translation and reinforcement help behaviour which assures reward. A particular behaviour is learnt to get a given reward. Reinforcement strengthens behaviour which in turn is aimed at acquiring the reward which drives habit and motivates efforts for a proper performance. Motives lead to behaviour which is satisfying. It is a known law of effect that reward strengthens habits because of lessening drive. It is R-S link behaviour which becomes a habit if rewarded. Reinforcement has become an important factor to shape stimuli into behaviour. Reinforcement may be positive or negative. Positive reinforcement assures reward, whereas negative reinforcement avoids unpleasant conditions. Employees are alerted to avoid unpleasant happenings through learning. For example, proper operation of machines is needed to avoid accidents or casualities. Negative reinforcement, i.e. avoidance

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of unpleasant events is useful for learning the proper handling of electric appliances and machines. The positive and negative reinforcement change behaviour, which if rewarded becomes a habit. Punishment and extinction are not part of the process of learning. They are used to avoid unpleasant behaviour. Modern theorists do not believe in punishment and extinction because they may be aversive to the learning process. On the contrary, reward and response are taken for learning. The larger the reward, the larger will be the reinforcement and stimulus to learn. To change the desired behaviour into habit, reward is an inevitable point and conversion factor.

The classical learning process lays emphasis on changing unconditioned stimuli to conditioned stimuli. If the conditioned stimulus has been acquired through the process of pairing with unconditioned stimulus, learning is acquired as it will give a conditioned response. Operant learning emphasises response which stimulates learning by changing the present behaviour into the required behaviour. The S-R connection in classical learning is changed to the R-S connection in operant learning. The reward or response need not be financial. It may be non-financial and psychologically satisfying to the employees. The classical theory believes that employees will fulfil their basic and other needs if they work hard or in a learned manner. On the contrary, the operant learning theory emphasises that the required learning and behaviour is adopted for getting basic and other needs. A manager works for getting social recognition. He learns to manage efficiently to gain recognition. He learns to manage efficiently to gain recognition and fame. Scientific research and technological development is related to operant learning.

Social Learning Model

Employees learn from their surroundings, peers, parents, teachers and other people. They learn socially by observation, and the importance of the perception process has been recognised under the social learning model. Stimuli, attention, retention, reproduction and reinforcement have been accepted as basic components of social learning.

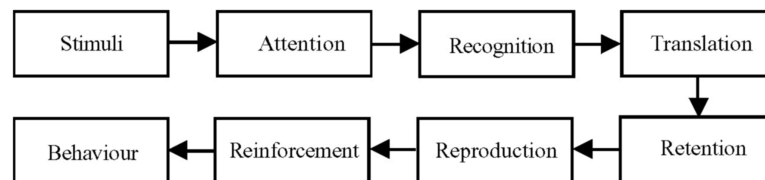


Fig. 4.5 *Social learning process*

Employees pay attention to several social stimuli which occur in their surroundings. They do not pay attention to all stimuli, but pay attention to only those stimuli which are attractive, easy to recognise, important and useful. The attended stimuli are recognised and translated by employees. The learning level depends upon how much the recognised stimuli are retained in the mind of employees. The retention process is helpful for storing information. Stimuli which are translated as useful and satisfactory must be retained for reproduction and

recall purposes. The recall provides reinforcement and behaviour. If rewards are provided, the behaviour will become a habit. The learning process is completed when employees show changes in behaviour which becomes a habit, i.e. permanent change in behaviour.

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Social learning has become a more useful process of learning because it goes beyond the process of classical operant learning by recognising the fact that there are more points and subjects of learning than the antecedent stimuli of classical and contingent consequences of operant learning. Social learning refers to the learning process through vicarious process modelling and self-control.

Vicarious process: Social learning includes the vicarious process which is useful for learning which involves observational learning. Millar and Bollard propounded the vicarious process wherein they believe that learning can take place through imitation process. Social learning includes the socialisation process. It refers to learning through social action, reaction and interaction. The language, customs, functions and performances are the outcome of social, cultural and political phenomena. Culture and religion are accepted for teaching the new generation about life style and behavioural patterns in society. People observe others and acquire a mental picture of the act and its consequences, which may be reward and punishment. If the consequences are positive and satisfactory as per social norms, people like to imitate and perform with repetition. If people find that the consequences are negative and full of problems, the imitated acts will be rejected. It is not a discrete performance with discrete response consequences. Operant learning is discrete response stimuli whereas social learning is a continuous response stimuli connection.

Modelling process: Modelling is effectively applied for shaping behaviour. It is used for the improvement of human behaviour. The behaviour leads to performance improvement. It is capable of meeting the technical skill requirements. A favourable environment increases the probability of attention and retention. Role playing and demonstration is modelled on the target behaviour. The behaviour is acquired as a result of the modelled process of existing behaviour. Continuous intermittent factors help develop behaviour. Modelling procedures have a favourable impact on behaviour and habits.

Self-control: Learning is a self-development process. People are interested in self-development. Self-analysis, appraisal and improvement help to learn and acquire the required behaviour. Reinforcement has a major role in the learning process.

Check Your Progress

3. Why is a temporary change in behaviour not considered learning?
4. How did the classical model of learning develop?

4.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

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1. Behaviour is the outcome of the cognitive process. It is a response to change in sensory inputs, i.e. stimuli. It is an overt and covert response.
2. The pattern of motivation in an organization helps to develop perception building. Motivated people have the right perceptions about the stimuli, whereas the loco-profiled workers are doubtful about the message given by the management for the development.
3. Learning is a permanent change in behaviour as a result of a cognitive process. A temporary change in behaviour is not learning because it is purely reflexive.
4. The classical model of learning developed with experience of the material process accompanied with learning stimuli.

4.7 SUMMARY

- Perception may be defined as "a cognitive process by which people attend to incoming stimuli, organize and interpret such stimuli into behaviour."
- Perception can also be defined as "a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment
- The factors influencing perceptions are the perceiver's characteristics, object and situations. However, they can be analysed under specific heads such as the perceiver's characteristics, personal factors, internal factors, organisational structures and social conditions.
- The perceptual process is influenced by the organisational structure and process. The perceptual structure, perceptual grouping, constancy, context, defence, workplace and process have been recognised as important factors influencing the perceptual process.
- Learning has been defined by several authors in different ways. All of them have accepted that learning shapes human behaviour.
- The learning process is totally associated with the mental process, inspiration and action.
- Theories of learning have been developed as models of learning which explain the learning process by which employees acquire a pattern of behaviour.
- The classical model of learning believes that the unconditioned and conditioned stimuli would be repeated several times to get the net result of a conditioned stimulus which would be a conditioned response.
- The operant or instrumental model of learning is a developed form of classical learning, i.e. the S-R link habit.

4.8 KEY WORDS

- **Perception:** It is the organization, identification, and interpretation of sensory information in order to represent and understand the presented information, or the environment.
- **Attitude:** It is a feeling or opinion about something or someone, or a way of behaving that is caused by this.
- **Stimuli:** It is a thing or event that evokes a specific functional reaction in an organ or tissue.
- **Stereotyping:** It is a set idea that people have about what someone or something is like, especially an idea that is wrong.

4.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What is stereotyping effect?
2. What are the different components of perception?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Describe the different factors that influence perception.
2. Explain the operant model of learning.

4.10 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 5 ATTITUDES AND VALUES

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Structure

5.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, we discussed perception and learning. Now we will turn to attitude and values. To put it simply, attitude may be defined as a tendency to react positively or negatively in regard to an object. On the other hand, value is defined as a concept of the desirable, an internalised criterion or standard of evaluation a person possesses. In the process of understanding individual behaviour within an organization, value and attitude are vital concepts.

5.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the meaning and nature of attitude
- Describe the functions of attitude
- Explain the formation of values

5.2 MEANING AND NATURE OF ATTITUDE

If you ask some one '*how are you?'* his response would depend upon his attitude towards life. If his attitude towards life is positive, he will say he feels very good and thank God for what he has. If his attitude towards life is negative, he will start complaining about everything that is wrong with the world. Similarly, if you ask someone about his job, you will find him to be very opinionated. He might say he likes his job very much or he might complain about the job bitterly. This would be a function of his attitude towards his job. Attitude is a collection of the type of personality, feelings towards the outside world, confidence within self and more.

Characteristics and Components of Attitude

Attitudes have four basic characteristics—direction, intensity, salience and differentiation. The direction of an attitude is favourable, unfavourable or neutral. We may like, dislike or be neutral in our views about a person, a job or a situation. The intensity of the attitude refers to the strength of the effective component. For example, we may dislike a person but the extent of our disliking would determine the intensity of our attitude towards him. Such dislike may range from weak to strong. In general, the more intense the attitude the more persistent will be such behaviour. Salience refers to the perceived importance of the attitude. Some people may not like to work with computers as they may not perceive it to be as important as a student in computer information systems for whom the knowledge of computers is mandatory for a career. Finally, attitudes can be high or low in differentiation depending upon how strong the supporting beliefs and values of the person are.

Components of Attitude

The attitudes, irrespective of what they are, generally consist of three major components. These are:

1. **Evaluative Component**. The evaluative component of attitude is a function of how we feel about something. It refers to our liking or disliking for a particular person, any particular event or any particular situation. Such person, event or situation becomes the focus of our attitude and is known as *attitude object.* For example, you may feel positively or negatively about your boss, about your friend, about the movie you have seen or about anything you happen to see.
2. **Cognitive Component**. Feelings, however, do not simply and automatically develop. Most often they are based on knowledge. For example, if you know that your friend is talking ill about you behind your back, such knowledge would result in negative attitude towards your friend. Similarly, you might believe that your supervisor does not know much about the job. This belief is based upon your knowledge of how the supervisor is handling the job. These beliefs, which may or may not be justified comprises the cognitive component of attitude.
3. **Behavioural Component**. What you believe about something and how you feel about it would determine your behaviour regarding that particular person, event or situation. For example, if you believe that your boss is embezzling company funds, and you feel negatively about it, you are likely to behave with little respect for such a boss. You may either inform his superiors about it or you may want to look for another job. Such predisposition to act in a certain way contributes the behavioural component of the attitude. Such a predisposition may not actually predict your behaviour. For example, if your boss is embezzling company funds, you may take some steps or you might simply ignore it by convincing yourself that it does

NOTES

not directly concern you. In other words, your intention to behave in a certain way dictates how you actually do.

Based upon these components, attitudes can be defined as relatively stable clusters of feelings, beliefs and behavioural predispositions. By including the words *relatively stable,* we are referring to something that is not permanent nor fleeting. In other words, once attitudes are formed, they tend to persist and can only be changed by strong outside or inside forces. For example, your attitude towards someone may be negative but may change if situations or circumstances change.

Attitude and Behaviour

It is assumed that the relationship between the attitude of a person and his behaviour is causal in nature, meaning that the attitudes that people hold determine their behaviour and what they do. Logic also suggests such a relationship. For example, people watch television programs that they like, that is, their attitude about such programs is positive.

Research conducted in the late sixties concluded that the relationship between attitude and behaviour is, at best, minimal. More recent studies have indicated that there is indeed a measurable relationship if moderating contingency variables are taken into consideration. The moderating variables which have been found to be most powerful include:

- Importance of the attitude
- Specificity of the attitude
- Accessibility of the attitude

Additionally, they have been also linked to existence of any social pressures on the individual and the direct experience of the attitude.

Attitudes that are considered important by the individual tend to be strongly related with behaviour. Similarly, attitudes that are specific are more predictable of behaviour. For example, if someone really likes his job, it can be predicted that he will stay with the company for a longer period of time. Attitudes that are frequently expressed are more reliable and more accessible to the memory and hence greater predictors of behaviour. Social pressures have a strong influence on attitudes and behaviour. For example, a member of a group may not agree with the group on certain issues but may go along, because of the social pressures within the group. Finally, the personal experiences with people and situations affect strongly the attitude and behaviour of a person. Positive experiences result in positive attitudes and negative experiences result in negative attitudes. For example, a student who has taken a course with a professor is in a much better position to evaluate him as compared to someone who has not taken his course.

The relationship between attitude and behaviour is well documented. However, a debate is still going on as to whether the changes in attitudes affect the changes in behaviour or whether the changes in behaviour affect the changes in

attitudes. In other words, it is not clear as to which one is the cause and which one is the effect.

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Attitude Formation

The question often arises, 'how are the attitudes and subsequent behaviours formed?' While attitudes are basically learned over the years, some inherited characteristics do affect such attitudes. For example, physical characteristics such as the height of the person. Tall and slim people are expected to dress well and behave in a sophisticated manner. Similarly, intelligence is primarily an inherited trait and it is related to certain behaviours. Intelligent people are considered to be much more logical and this affects their attitude. Religion and religious beliefs can be considered as inherited, as the religion of the child is determined by the religion of his parents and it determines some aspects of individual behaviour, especially those that concern attitudes based on morals, ethics and code of conduct. Similarly, whether a person is born a male or a female determines some stereotype traits such as aggressiveness and physical stamina. Most of the inherited traits are strengthened by learning and experiencing.

While some attitudes are adopted early in life from our family values or cultural environment, most are developed gradually over time through experiences and observations. Some of the learned characteristics responsible for attitude formation are:

Experiences: Our personal experiences with people and situations develop our attitude towards such persons and situations. Through job experience, people develop attitudes towards working conditions, salaries, supervision, group dynamics and so on. Similarly, interaction with other people would determine your attitude towards them. A positive interaction with a person would result in a positive attitude towards that person. Many people who are afraid of swimming or horse riding or darkness can trace back this fear to some fearful or negative experiences in these areas in the past.

Perceptual biases: Perception is the result of a complex interaction of various senses such as feelings, seeing, hearing and so on and plays an important part in our attitude and behavioural formation. For example, if a manager perceives a subordinate's ability as limited, he will give him limited responsibility. Similarly, we lose many good friends due to our changed perception about them.

Observation of the other person's attitude: When we like someone, we try to emulate that person's attitude. For example, when we are impressed by someone keeping calm under stressful circumstances and we appreciate such calmness, we might try to do the same. Similarly, our attitude towards a spiritual person changes if we observe him committing what we consider a sinful act.

Association: Our association with the group we belong to strongly influences our attitude. Our close association with a group would encourage us to be consistent with the attitude of the group. Belonging to an elite group or a religious group

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would determine some aspects of our attitude. Family association determines our attitudes from the very beginning. There is a high correlation between the parents and the children with respect to attitude in many specific areas. Similarly, attitudes of our peers as we grow older also influence our own attitudes. We make friends with people who share our own attitudes, interests and preferences. Many a times, our parents object to our friendship with persons whom they deem undesirable and encourage us to make friends with those who have an outlook similar to our own.

Personality: Personality is a set of traits and characteristics, habit patterns and conditioned responses to certain stimuli that formulate the impression that a person makes upon others and this impression is a function of a person's attitude. This personality may come out as warm and friendly or arrogant and aggressive. From an organizational behaviour point of view, it is believed that people who are open-minded seem to work better than those who are narrow minded. Similarly, people who are extroverts and outgoing are more likely to be successful as managers than those who are introverts.

5.2.1 Attitude Measurement

In social settings, we can judge a person's attitude easily in the sense that we either like or dislike a given attitude. However, at work, it is more difficult to measure the attitude of workers towards work. Such measurement becomes necessary for the management to predict employee behaviour which will affect the quality of work. From the view point of measurement, attitudes may be defined by describing measurement systems that social psychologists use to measure attitudes. The most common and frequently used method of measuring attitude is by simply asking people about their attitudes towards various issues, people and factors. This is accomplished by attitude surveys and questionnaires. Generally, bipolar scales are used to measure the attitudes towards a job in terms of liking it or disliking it. However, different scales have been created in order to measure the degree of such liking or disliking.

One of the most commonly used ranking scale is the one which has five categories ranging from most favourable to most unfavourable. Typical categories and their ranks are:

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral (Undecided)
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

The standard survey for measuring the attitude of the employees generally presents them with a series of statements and questions which also has a rating scale indicating the extent of agreement or disagreement as stated above. Some

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examples of statements are: 'This management is very fair in dealing with employees' or 'My job makes the best use of my abilities' or 'I know what is expected of me' and so on by totalling the responses on the customized questionnaire, the individual's attitude score can be calculated. The analysis and evaluation of these scores can then be carried out for different teams, work groups, departments or the complete organization.

The results of attitude surveys can sometimes surprise the management. One company management was very happy with the way things were going. Employees were actively involved in divisional decisions and the profitability was very high leading to the assumption that employee morale was very high. The management conducted a small attitude survey in order to confirm their thinking and belief. As a part of the survey, the employees were presented with some of the statements in order to identify their extent of agreement or disagreement. These statements included the following:

- At workplace, your opinions are given importance
- You are encouraged to become a leader if you are willing to do so
- Your personal development has been discussed with you in the period of last six months

The answers were totally unexpected. The results of the survey indicated that disagreement to the first statement was expressed by 43 per cent of the employees, disagreement to the second statement was expressed by 48 per cent of the people and 62 per cent employees expressed their disagreement for the third statement. Based on this survey, the management made some changes to boost the employee morale, especially giving attention to such matters that caused alienation among the employees.

By using such surveys on a regular basis, the management can get a valuable feedback about the perceptions carried out by the employees with respect to their working conditions. The management can also become aware of the different potential problems that may hit the organization. The diagnosis of these problems is possible at an early stage with such surveys. Once the management is notified of these problems, they can take needful steps in order to rectify these problems and timely actions can be taken in order to avoid any negative consequences.

One of the purposes of such surveys is to determine how variables relate to each other and how changes in one variable are associated with changes in another variable. For example, if we want to find a correlation between how fairly people believe they are being paid and various work-related attitudes such as their willingness to help co-workers. The researchers might find that the more workers feel that they are unfairly paid, the less likely they are to help their co-workers. Such studies can alert the management to take steps to create a more collegial work environment.

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Attitudes and Productivity

There are two key work attitudes, which determine the importance of attitude-behaviour relationship with respect to productivity. These are job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Equally important are the complex relationships between job satisfaction and job performance.

5.3 VALUES AND ATTITUDE

Having an attitude implies the existence of an object towards which an attitude is required. A value, however, is an ideal to which the individual subscribes; it represents a basic conviction that a specific mode of conduct is preferable (in a personal or social sense) to any other, and it is relatively stable and enduring (Rokeach and Ball-Rokeach 1989). Attitude and behaviours are the consequences of adhering to certain values. For example, if a person places high value on gender equality in society, he would exhibit a positive attitude towards both the sexes and behave accordingly. The relationship between attitude and behaviour is sometimes moderated by values. For example, if a person is dissatisfied with both his job and work colleagues (negative attitude), he may not be expected help others in times of need. But if the person possesses a high value for cooperative behaviour, he would go ahead and help others.

An attitude can emerge from a value. A person who places a high premium on honesty is likely to develop a negative attitude towards a person who is dishonest. A person who places high value on justice is likely to have a positive attitude towards a person or a system which takes just and fair decisions. However, sometimes attitudes may bring about a change in values. For example, low job satisfaction (attitude) may, in the long run, change the person's perspectives towards the importance of quality of work life (value). Therefore, it is imperative to understand what values are and how they affect a person's orientation towards work and the organization.

5.4 VALUES: MEANING, NATURE, TYPES AND FORMATION

Employees have certain values in life. They view life from different angles which are reflected in their work performance. Learning helps them develop high values towards their jobs and the organization. Values refer to the basic convictions which lead to formation of conduct or social preferences. Values are a combination of different attitudes and attributes of individuals. They help employees decide what is right, good, desirable, favourable and so on. One value may be useful for a person, but may not be effective for others. The intensity attribute or value system

has relative importance. Values are a code of conduct developed by an individual and the social system. Honesty, self-respect, equality, sincerity, obedience, truthfulness, etc. are various examples of values.

NOTES

Values are significant in organizational behaviour. Employees behave properly if they give importance to values. Learning may help provide opportunities for development of values. Employees would be aware of what ought to be done or what ought not to be done by giving importance to values. Behaviour is modified only if people are aware of right or wrong things which are the deciding components of values. Learning aims to develop values so that employees can perform and behave properly. Values influence objectives too, because values shape the attitude and behaviour of employees. For example, obedient employees perform efficiently without creating any problems for the management. Disciplined employees feel directed towards objectives. Learning helps employees develop high values and favourable behaviour.

Sources of Values

People develop values from different sources, e.g. parents, friends, teachers, society, religion, workplace and national characteristics. Parents are the initiators of values. Mother and father always tell us what is right or what is wrong. They ask their children to do right things and avoid wrong things. Every family has certain values which are inculcated in the children. Brothers and sisters play significant roles in developing values. Parental guidance paves the value system on which children develop their attitude and behaviour. That is why it is said that children of a good family will be good and hard workers. Parents talk about society, friends, nations and work values, and these values are incorporated by children in their attitudes and behaviour.

Friends influence each other to resort to particular behaviour. Good company helps develop good values. Teachers teach several good values to be adopted by students. Teachers are real instructors of value to learners. Society has a great impact on shaping the inter-behaviour of people, which provides value formation. Club members encourage different values depending upon their respective characters. Values are learnt and developed through religious factors. God, universe, fortune and suffering are attached to value application in behaviour. For example, righteous behaviour pleases god and vice-versa. A pleased god showers fortune and a displeased god gives suffering, as per several examples of religious and cultural beliefs. Indian society believes that good values are related to godly pleasure which give satisfaction to people. Workplaces teach honesty, responsibility, diligence, endurance and so on. People should be honest and responsible while performing a job. Good values have become strong forces for good behaviour whereas bad values destroy social and economic ties. Misery, suffering and dissatisfaction are associated with bad values. Good values give satisfaction as

they help one to perform better. National characters have a great impact on the values exercised by the people. Warring nations have been developing warring and fighting values as real factors for satisfaction. Peace-loving nations develop peace values in people. Based on different sources of value formation, values are different. Learning strengthens good values and avoids bad values through positive and negative reinforcements respectively. The social learning process helps develop varied values.

Types of Values

Values may be of different types, depending upon their sources of formation, namely family values, economic values, social values, religious values and national values. Family values preach methods of living in a family. The behaviour of family members with each other depends on the values developed. For example, the relationship between parents and children, brother and sister and so on, have certain behavioural values. A father will treat his children affectionately. Similarly, children are expected to honour and respect their parents. There are different family values which are bases of satisfaction and happiness in the family.

Economic values give importance to money, financial resources and property formation. If an employee is unable to develop himself and his family, he has not given due importance to economic values. In the modern age, people recognise economic values more than other values. Economic well-being is considered a symbol of status and satisfaction. Social values refer to the methods of behaviour in society. Social recognition and social satisfaction are related to social values. If a friend helps other friends, he values friendship and selflessness. Religious values are often observed in India where large sections of the people are governed by religious values and acceptances. Religious leaders shape lives of people through the preaching of religious values such as having faith in god, non-interference in others' lives, job fulfilment, being active, non-attachment, etc. The aim of life is told to them and this incorporates several relevant values to shape the behaviour of people. It is also referred to as a terminal value. People practice instrumental values for the development of family and society. Values at the workplace are covered under economic values, whereas values of behaviour accepted in the organization are known as instrumental values for achieving satisfaction. National values are preached by national leaders. Mahatma Gandhi preached some significant values to the people of the nation. Truth and non-violence were the two important values preached by him. Different values are attached to particular generations. The modern generation below the age of 30 are freer, leisure-minded, flexible and so on.

Learning programmes should be designed in such a way that the employees can develop high values for corporate development and their satisfaction as well. Instrumental values of honesty, responsibility, ambition, courage and independence

may achieve the terminal values of self-respect, security, accomplishment, happiness and self-satisfaction. Older people are conservative, loyal and quality-oriented whereas the younger generation is flexible, leisure-liking and believes in building up relations. Good values are to be explored, initiated and developed for the modification of performance behaviour in an organization. Learning has a great role to play in achieving this objective.

Check Your Progress

1. State the four basic characteristics of attitude.
2. What is perception a result of?
3. List some of the different sources of values.

5.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Attitudes have four basic characteristics—direction, intensity, salience and differentiation.
2. Perception is the result of a complex interaction of various senses such as feelings, seeing, hearing and so on and plays an important part in our attitude and behavioural formation.
3. People develop values from different sources, e.g. parents, friends, teachers, society, religion, workplace and national characteristics.

5.6 SUMMARY

- Attitudes have four basic characteristics—direction, intensity, salience and differentiation. The direction of an attitude is favourable, unfavourable or neutral. We may like, dislike or be neutral in our views about a person, a job or a situation.
- It is assumed that the relationship between the attitude of a person and his behaviour is causal in nature, meaning that the attitudes that people hold determine their behaviour and what they do. Logic also suggests such a relationship.
- The question often arises, 'how are the attitudes and subsequent behaviours formed?' While attitudes are basically learned over the years, some inherited characteristics do affect such attitudes.
- In social settings, we can judge a person's attitude easily in the sense that we either like or dislike a given attitude. However, at work, it is more difficult to measure the attitude of workers towards work.

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- Having an attitude implies the existence of an object towards which an attitude is required. A value, however, is an ideal to which the individual subscribes; it represents a basic conviction that a specific mode of conduct is preferable (in a personal or social sense) to any other, and it is relatively stable and enduring (Rokeach and Ball-Rokeach 1989).
- Values are significant in organizational behaviour. Employees behave properly if they give importance to values. Learning may help provide opportunities for development of values.
- Values may be of different types, depending upon their sources of formation, namely family values, economic values, social values, religious values and national values. Family values preach methods of living in a family.
- Learning programmes should be designed in such a way that the employees can develop high values for corporate development and their satisfaction as well.

5.7 KEY WORDS

- **Values:** It refers to principles or standards of behaviour; one's judgement of what is important in life.
- **Attitude:** It means a settled way of thinking or feeling about something.

5.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. How is attitude measured?
2. What is the relationship between values and attitude?

Long Answer Questions

1. Comment on the inter-relationship between attitude and behaviour.
2. Explain the formation of attitude.
3. Describe the various types of values.

5.9 FURTHER READINGS

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BLOCK - II

ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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UNIT 6 GROUPS IN ORGANIZATION

Structure

6.0 INTRODUCTION

In general, a number of people together at a given place and given time can be considered a group. People in a bus or the same compartment of a train or students in a class are all known as groups. However, from an organizational point of view, a group has a different meaning and definition. According to Marvin Shaw, 'A group is two or more persons who are interacting with one another in such a manner that each person influences and is influenced by each other person.' There are two key elements in this definition that are essential. First is the 'interaction' among group members. For example, co-workers may work side by side on related tasks, but if they do not interact with each other, they are not a group in the organizational sense. The second element is the influence of one group member on every other group member. This means that the group members are mutually dependent with respect to the attainment of one or more common goals.

6.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the meaning and characteristics of groups
- Discuss the stages of group formation
- Examine the role of groups in decision making

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6.2 MEANING AND CHARACTERISTICS OF GROUPS

A group has a certain syntality which is developed further in an organization to achieve group synergy. The origin of groupism has an interesting history. A group is defined as 'two or more interacting and interdependent individuals who have come together to achieve particular objectives'. An individual will be unable to perform all the required activities, and group formation is inevitable to achieve organizational objectives. Groups may therefore be formed and accepted by an organization. Groupism may also be informal, that is, not recognised but functioning in the organization. Sometimes, informal groups are more effective in an organization. Group dynamics is essentially used to increase the productivity and profitability of an organization and group behaviour is different from individual behaviour. Group behaviour helps achieve higher productivity than the sum of individual performances because of group personality which is known as syntality. Groups have a separate identity. They are given more importance in organisational behaviour because group personality or syntality has synergy, i.e. higher output than that of the sum of individual output. A group thinks, decides, sets goals and tries to act upon these to achieve the group goals. Group behaviour has three dimensional studies, viz. the basis of the foundation of the group, intra-group behaviour and inter-group behaviour.

Group Formation

Group formation has certain objectives. The purpose behind group formation may be task achievement, problem-solving, proximity or other socio-psychological requirements. Group formation is based on activities, interactions and sentiments.

Task Accomplishment

The basic purpose of group formation is the achievement of certain objectives through task performance. Individuals come closer in order to understand the tasks and decide on the procedures of performance. In any organisation, task accomplishment is the reason for which different groups such as an engineering group, marketing group, foreman's group and personnel group are formed for achievement of the organisations' goals. When an organisation faces some procedural difficulties, concerned groups discuss them and evolve new techniques of production, marketing and other functions.

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Problem Solving

When people foresee or face certain problems, they unite to solve the problems. Unity has strength. A group provides strength to members who are willing to challenge any problem. Group behaviour gives more strength to come down heavily on problems.

Proximity

People form groups because of proximity and attraction towards each other. The group formation theory is based on propinquity, which means that individuals affiliate because of spatial or geographical proximity. They interact frequently with each other on many topics, because this interactive communication is rewarding.

Socio-psychological Factors

Sentiments and action-uniformities bring people closer. They also form groups for safety, security and social achievements. People cooperate with members of the group on social as well as economic grounds to reach satisfactory levels.

People form groups basically for activities, interaction and due to sentiments. People living in proximity frequently discuss their problems. They try to reduce their tensions and achieve satisfaction. Individuals interest each other only when they have common attitudes and sentiments. People with diverse attitudes form groups under certain compulsions to meet unexpected problems. Employees form unions to ensure the safety and security of jobs. Outside the factory, they form groups for religious, social, cultural and political activities.

6.3 REASONS FOR FORMATION OF GROUPS

There are two theories of group formation, i.e., functionalist theory and interpersonal attraction theory. The first focuses on the functionality of the group aimed at achieving collective goals and the second emphasizing on the human need for social interaction.

Sigmund Freud believed that groups form and continue because of the need for affiliation and power.

Lewin held that group was a function of inter-related factors of the individual and the group.

Interaction theory views the group as a system of interacting individuals that produce three elements; activity-interaction-sentiment. This holds that you look at each to understand group behaviour.

The systems theory adopts a position similar to interaction but adding the elements of positions and roles along with inputs and out puts.

Sociometric orientation emphasizes interpersonal choices among group members and the focus is on morale and performance and their dependence on the group

Psychoanalytic orientation focuses on the drives of the individual and is concerned about the motivational and defensive processes of the individual as related to the group.

General Psychology orientation attempts to extend the theoretical analyses of individual behaviour to group behaviour.

Empirical-statistical orientation holds the basic concepts of group theory can be discovered through the application of statistical analysis of data abut individuals.

Formal and informal groups are formed in organizations for different reasons. Formal groups are sometimes called official or assigned groups and informal groups may be known as unofficial or emergent groups. Organizations routinely form groups. If we assume that management decisions are rational, groups must benefit organizations in some way. Presumably, the use of groups can contribute to achieving and maintaining a sustainable competitive advantage. Groups can do this if they enable an organization to fully tap the abilities and energy of its human resources. Furthermore, with regard to informal groups, people form groups to meet their individual needs.

(i) Performance

Group effort can be more efficient and effective than individual efforts, because it enables the employees to specialize in and contribute to a variety of strengths. Organizations structure employees into functional and task groups so that they can develop and apply expertise in particular functions, products, problems or customers. The other factor contributing to performance is motivation, and groups can enhance this as well. When employees work in groups, the group is an important force for creating and enforcing standards for behaviour.

(ii) Cooperation

Carrying out an organization's mission is something no person can do alone. However, for several people to accomplish a mutual goal, they must cooperate. Group dynamics and characteristics can enhance cooperation among employees, especially when members identify themselves as a group and are rewarded for group success.

(iii) Satisfaction

If satisfaction improves motivation (and therefore performance), organizations as well as individual employees can benefit from employees' satisfaction derived from group membership. A major source of this satisfaction is that people have a need of being with others and being liked by them. The way people satisfy this category of needs is by participating in groups focusing on social activity. Group membership may also be a means of satisfying their need for security, power, and esteem.

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6.3.1 Stages of Group Formation

Group development has been studied to find out the purposes behind development. Different groups require different lengths of time for development. The development structure is heavily influenced by the nature of groups. The various stages of group development are forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning. All the groups may not accept the same order of group development.

The *first stage* is *forming*, wherein the group decides its own purpose, structure and leadership. Members decide what types of behaviour are acceptable. The membership is increased till the group is finally established. Individuals are brought together for the first time and a communication pattern is developed. The interdependence of members is decided as per the structure and goals of the group. They decide on plans of future action involving discussions on formulation of group goals and evaluating the resources for achieving the goals.

The *second stage* of group development is *storming*, wherein members storm their views. They put forth their views forcibly with strength, and this evidences interpersonal conflicts. Many problems are brought to the group for discussion and solution. Many conflicting views may be expressed. Authorities and supervisors are frequently criticised for various reasons. However in an educated group, people consider the views of others with patience. They arrive at unanimous decisions with constructive attitudes. A group develops syntality and gets synergy if the storming stage is actively smoothened. On the contrary, the group will not advance if the members continue storming and conflicting with each other.

The *third stage* of group development is *norming*, wherein members develop a close relationship and demonstrate cohesiveness. Members enjoy belonging to the group and develop synergy. A strong sense of group identity and a camaraderie is developed. The group structure is solidified and interpersonal relationships are developed with increased cohesiveness and sharing of ideas. It increases the positive behaviour and strong feeling of development among members.

The *fourth stage* is the *performing* stage. The group performs its functions to achieve the desired objectives. It is fully functional and operational. This stage is directed towards the accomplishment of group goals. It explores the action to be taken and decides on innovations. Satisfactory performances and achievement of group goals are observed under this stage.

The *fifth stage* is the *adjourning* stage of development when the group is dissolved. The adjournment stage is generally undertaken after completing the task, although the group may be adjourned even before completing the task, due to misunderstanding and storming. Mutual friendship is lost, depression is observed and the group is wrapped up with activities. Such adjournment is undesirable for both individuals and the organisation. The group objectives should be fulfilled before adjournment. Leaders play a great role in the continuation and adjournment of the group. Dynamic leaders always try to review and strengthen the group activities for the development of their people.

Check Your Progress

1. How is group behaviour a three dimensional study?
2. List the various stages of group development.

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6.4 TYPES OF GROUPS

Groups can be either formal or informal. Let us discuss both types of groups.

Formal Groups

A formal group is set up by the organization to carry out work in support of the organization's goals. In formal groups, the behaviour that one should engage in are stipulated by and directed towards organizational goals. Examples include a bookkeeping department, an executive committee and a product development team. The formal group may be a command group or a task group.

(i) Command group

A command group comprises a manager and the employees who report to him or her. Thus, it is defined in terms of the organization's hierarchy. Membership in the group arises from each employee's position in the organizational chart.

(ii) Task group

A task group comprises employees who work together to complete a particular task or project. A task group's boundary is not limited to its immediate hierarchical superior. It can cross-command relationships. An employee's membership in the group arises from the responsibilities delegated to the employee—that is, the employee's responsibility to carry out particular activities. The task group may be temporary with an established life span, or it may be open ended.

Informal Groups

An organization's informal groups are groups that evolve to meet social or affiliation needs by bringing people together based on shared interests or friendship. Thus, informal groups are alliances that are neither formally structured nor organizationally determined. These groups are natural formations in the work environment that appear in response to the need for social contact. Many factors explain why people are attracted to one another. One simple explanation is proximity; when people work near one another every day, they are likely to become friends. That likelihood is even greater when people share similar attitudes, personalities or economic status.

(i) Friendship groups

Groups often develop because the individual members have one or more common characteristics. These formations are known as friendship groups. Social alliances, which frequently extend outside the work situation, can be based on similarities age, political view, education, etc.

(ii) Interest groups

People who may or may not be aligned to common command or task groups may affiliate to attain a specific objective with which each is concerned. This is an interest group.

(iii) Reference groups

Sometimes, people use a group as a basis for comparison in making decisions or forming opinions. When a group is used in this way, it is called a reference group. Employees have reference groups inside or outside the organization where they work. For most people, the family is the most important reference group. Other important reference groups typically include co-workers, friends and members of the person's religious organization. The employee need not admire a group for it to serve as a reference group. Some reference groups serve as a negative reference; the employee tries to be unlike the members of these groups.

(iv) Membership groups

When a person belongs to a group (formal and informal groups to which employees actually belong) the group is called a membership group (or affiliation group) for that person. Members of a group have some collective benefits and responsibilities that go beyond the group serving as a reference point. In a membership group, each member would be expected to contribute to the group's well-being and would enjoy the benefit arising from the group member's friendship.

6.5 GROUP NORMS

Norms are shared ways of looking at the world. Groups control members through the use of norms. A norm is a rule of conduct that has been established by group members to maintain consistency in behaviour. Norms tell members what they should and should not do under certain circumstances. From an individual's standpoint they tell what is expected of you in certain situations. Norms differ among groups, communities, and societies, but they all have norms.

According to Hackman, norms have the following characteristics:

(i) Norms summarize and simplify group influence processes. They resolve impersonal differences in a group and ensure uniformity of action.

(ii) Norms apply only to behaviour, not to private thoughts and feelings.

(iii) Norms are usually developed gradually, but the process can be shortened if members so desire.

(iv) Not all norms apply to everyone. High-status members often enjoy more freedom to deviate from the 'letter of the law' than do other members.

Types of Norms

Norms are unique to each work group. Yet, there are some common classes of norms that appear in most work groups.

(i) ***Performance-related processes:*** Work groups typically provide their members with explicit cues on how hard they should work, how to get the job done, their level of output, etc. These norms deal with performance-related processes and are extremely powerful in affecting an individual employee's performance.

(ii) ***Appearance factors:*** Some organizations have formal dress codes. However, even in their absence, norms frequently develop to dictate the kind of clothes that should be worn to work.

(iii) ***Allocation of resources:*** These norms cover pay, assignment of difficult jobs, and allocation of new tools and equipment.

(iv) ***Informal social arrangement:*** These norms can originate in the group or the organization and cover pay assignment of difficult jobs, and allocation of new tools and equipment.

Factors Influencing Conformance to Norms

As a member of a group, you desire acceptance from the group. Due to your desire for acceptance, you are susceptible to conforming to the group's norms. Considerable evidence shows that groups can place strong pressures on individual members to change their attitudes and behaviours to conform to the group's standard. However, conformity to norms is not automatic. It depends on the following factors:

(i) ***Personality factors:*** Research on personality factors suggests that the more intelligent are less likely to conform than the less intelligent. Again, in unusual situations where decisions must be taken on unclear items, there is a greater tendency to conform to the group's norms. Under conditions of crisis, conformity to group norms is highly probable.

(ii) ***Situational factors:*** Group size, communication patterns, degree of group unanimity, etc., are the situational factors influencing conformity to norms.

(iii) ***Intragroup relationships:*** A group that is seen as being creditable will evoke more compliance than a group that is not.

(iv) ***Compatible goals:*** When individual goals coincide with group goals, people are more willing to adhere to group norms.

6.6 GROUP COHESIVENESS

Groups are a pervasive part of modern life. We are members of many different groups. Although every group is different, possessing its own unique attributes and dynamics, it is also true that in many important ways groups tend to display similar patterns of evolution. Formal and informal groups are formed for various reasons. Some of the reasons involve the need for satisfaction, proximity, attraction, goals and economics. The closeness or commonness of attitude, behaviour and performance makes groups cohesive.

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Formal and informal groups seem to possess a closeness or commonness of attitude, behaviour and performance. This 'closeness' or 'commonness' is called 'cohesiveness'. Cohesiveness is a force that acts on the members to remain in a group and is greater than the forces that work on members to pull them away from the group. Highly cohesive groups comprise individuals who are motivated to be together. Group cohesiveness is the extent to which a group is committed to remaining together; it results from 'all forces acting on the members to remain in the group.' The forces that create cohesiveness are attraction to the group, resistance to leaving the group and motivation to remain a member of the group. There are a number of reasons for groups to be cohesive. Some of them are given below:

(i) The goals of the group and the members are compatible and therefore individuals are attracted towards groups.

(ii) The group has a charismatic leader who is well respected and admired by his followers.

(iii) Members get support from other group members and are helped by other members to overcome obstacles and barriers.

(iv) The group is small enough to enable members have their opinions heard and are evaluated by others.

The concept of group cohesiveness is important for understanding groups in organizations. From the organization's point of view, the degree of cohesiveness in a group can have either positive or negative effects depending on how group goals match up with those of the organization. If the group is highly cohesive but its goals are not compatible with the organization then group behaviour will be negative. Therefore, from the point of the organization, it may sometimes be desirable to alter the cohesion of a work group; for example, if the group goals are compatible with organizational goals then the managers must increase cohesiveness as higher the group cohesiveness, the more beneficial is its effect on the organization. However, when group goals counter those of the organization, managers must take steps to decrease group cohesiveness. Here, it should be noted that attempts to alter the cohesiveness of any group may not work and may even backfire on the organization. Therefore, managers should exercise great care in making decisions about attempting to influence the cohesion of work groups.

Successful groups reach their goals more often and this increases group cohesiveness. It should also be noted that a successful group becomes more cohesive and this increases the possibility of success.

6.7 DECISION MAKING AND THE GROUP

There are many situations that suddenly come up as ill-structured problems that are unlikely to be solved by a single individual. In such situations where the problem

is unique and complex, the manager may assign the responsibility to a group of experts to look at the problem objectively and come up with recommendations. The group decision would become particularly appropriate for non-programmed decisions because these decisions are complex and few individuals have all the knowledge and skills necessary to make the best decision. It is often argued that groups can make higher quality decisions than individuals.

According to Gary John, here are three assumptions that from the basis for this argument. These are:

Groups are more vigilant than individuals: Because of natural constraints, any single individual cannot look at all possible angles of a complex problem and thus he may miss an important aspect of the issue. But if there are more members looking at the same problem then it is more likely that someone among the group has thought of or looked at that particular aspect. This is especially important at problem identification and information search stages.

Groups can generate more ideas and develop more alternative solutions than individuals: Members of the group come from different backgrounds with different experiences and outlooks, so that it is more likely that someone will come up with an idea that others had not thought of before. Also, by listening to each other's ideas, the group members may develop new ideas based upon such information and come up with a unique solution that no single member could conceive. For example, in college environment, in a course evaluation and development programme, students, faculty and administrators are included in the group to discuss the issues and develop various viewpoints. (see cartoon below for a humorous look at groups)

Groups can evaluate ideas better than individuals: This again is a result of various and diverse viewpoints presented by the members of the group. Because individuals can sometimes become emotional when making decisions, it is possible that bias would be introduced into the decision if it was made by one person. Different persons can check for bias and evaluate ideas on a more objective basis so that decisions would be made on the basis of facts and rationality rather than sympathy and emotionalism. This view is expressed by Argyris as follows:

> "Groups are valuable when they can maximize the unique contribution of each individual. Moreover, as each individual's contribution is enhanced, his or her commitment to the resulting decision is increased or internalised."

When to Use a Group

While groups are very useful in solving certain types of problems, not all types of problems are better solved by groups. Hence some factors must be taken into consideration in determining whether the decision making process should be initiated by the group or not. The question is, what criteria can be used to help determine whether or not to use a group?

There are basically two major criteria to be considered. One of these is the quality of the decision. Quality refers to the degree of usefulness of the decision.

NOTES

This is based upon objective analysis of facts and data. This ensures that the problem is rationally looked at from all possible angles and a solution is arrived at that is consistent with the organizational goals and policies and that is feasible and optimal. The second criterion is that of acceptability. Acceptability of decision refers to feelings, needs and emotions of those who implement such a decision or who are affected by it. The ideal decision would be high on both criteria.

These two criteria may be interdependent or may be totally independent of each other. Some decisions are only concerned with quality such as a technical or a scientific problem where the employees are not expected to be emotionally involved with the outcome. An example would be devising a new technical method of operations where the employees are not affected at all. Some issues on the other hand involve only the criterion of acceptance. For example, who works overtime is an issue of acceptance by the employees. Decisions regarding increase in the productivity, automation, reducing absenteeism, are all decisions where both quality and acceptance are to be considered. For example, extremely harsh measures to reduce absenteeism may not be accepted by employees unless it is decided by a group that includes employee representatives. Accordingly, when acceptance is critical, the management should seriously consider using a group for the decision making process.

6.7.1 Individual and Group Decision Making

While the composition of the group is very important for effective decision making, the presence and behaviour of a responsible group leader is the key element in steering the group discussion and participation. The group leader is in a critical position to affect the quality and acceptance of the decision. Whether he is elected by the group or appointed by the management, his role is highly responsible in setting the direction of the group discussion. A good leader of the group would not dominate the discussion but generally guide the members towards the established goals as well as moderate the discussion. He develops a kinship with the members and is always sympathetic to the members input. There are some basic characteristics of a good group leader whose attention and guidance would determine the success of the group function. These basic characteristics fall into two broad categories.

First category consists of task characteristics that deals primarily with the operations of the group and the second category is that of maintenance characteristics that deals with the human aspect of the group. These characteristics are explained as follows:

Task Characteristics

1. The leader of the group must define the problem clearly and carefully and bring it to the attention of the group members so that each member becomes fully conversant with the issues at hand. He should initiate the discussion and may suggest a procedure for finding a solution.

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2. He should have the ability to make every member feel comfortable about the situation and the problem at hand and should seek relevant information from group members who may not volunteer information unless asked. He must encourage every member to express his opinions freely.
3. The leader should have the ability and the knowledge to provide answers to any questions, clarify interpretations of the data presented and guide the members to the central point of discussion if the discussion becomes tangential from varying interpretations of the same data.
4. The leader should offer his personal opinions for consideration, but he should not excessively emphasise his viewpoint or assume the role of a dictator. He should be willing to compromise, if necessary, for the sake of group cohesion.
5. The leader should remain in continuous touch with the group so as to be aware of the progress at any given moment. At the end of the discussion, a leader should be able to summarise the ideas presented and propose a conclusion to the group to accept, reject or modify.

Maintenance Characteristics

1. The leader should be fair and friendly to all the group members and maintain a rapport with them by showing concern for their contribution and recognition.
2. He should be skilled in interpersonal relations so that he is able to sense the mood of the group and share in that mood. He should try to settle disagreements in a harmonious manner. This should result in reducing the tension in the group environment.
3. He must be willing to give in wherever necessary. This would improve group cohesiveness, respect for the leader and maintain an atmosphere of harmony.
4. The leader should be open minded and flexible. He should keep the lines of communication with members open so that the members are free to express their ideas openly and with confidence, expecting that their ideas would be taken seriously.

Check Your Progress

3. What are the two types of formal group?
4. What is the role of the leader in decision-making within a group?

6.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Group behaviour has three dimensional studies, viz. the basis of the foundation of the group, intra-group behaviour and inter-group behaviour.

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2. The various stages of group development are forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning.
3. The formal group may be a command group or a task group.
4. The leader of the group must define the problem clearly and carefully and bring it to the attention of the group members so that each member becomes fully conversant with the issues at hand.

6.9 SUMMARY

- A group is defined as 'two or more interacting and interdependent individuals who have come together to achieve particular objectives.
- The purpose behind group formation may be task achievement, problem-solving, proximity or other socio-psychological requirements. Group formation is based on activities, interactions and sentiments.
- There are two theories of group formation, i.e., functionalist theory and interpersonal attraction theory. The first focuses on the functionality of the group aimed at achieving collective goals and the second emphasizing on the human need for social interaction.
- The various stages of group development are forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning. All the groups may not accept the same order of group development.
- Groups can be either formal or informal. A formal group is set up by the organization to carry out work in support of the organization's goals.
- An organization's informal groups are groups that evolve to meet social or affiliation needs by bringing people together based on shared interests or friendship. Thus, informal groups are alliances that are neither formally structured nor organizationally determined.
- A norm is a rule of conduct that has been established by group members to maintain consistency in behaviour.
- Formal and informal groups seem to possess a closeness or commonness of attitude, behaviour and performance. This 'closeness' or 'commonness' is called 'cohesiveness'.
- There are many situations that suddenly come up as ill-structured problems that are unlikely to be solved by a single individual. In such situations where the problem is unique and complex, the manager may assign the responsibility to a group of experts to look at the problem objectively and come up with recommendations.

6.10 KEY WORDS

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- **Group:** It refers to a number of people or things that are located, gathered, or classed together.
- **Formal group:** It is set up by the organization to carry out work in support of the organization's goals. In formal groups, the behaviour that one should engage in are stipulated by and directed towards organizational goals.
- **Command group:** It comprises a manager and the employees who report to him or her.
- **Motivation:** It can be defined as a general desire, need or want that generates the energy required for someone to behave in a specific manner.

6.11 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What do you understand by group formation?
2. Differentiate between formal and informal groups.
3. List the different types of norms.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the different stages of group formation.
2. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of group decision-making.
3. 'Groups control members through the use of norms'. Elaborate.

6.12 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 7 WORK STRESS

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Structure

7.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about groups and decision making. In this unit, we will learn about stress and counselling. Stress is a feeling of emotional or physical tension. It can come from any event or thought that makes you feel frustrated, angry, or nervous. Almost all employees in an organization face issues related to stress due to work pressure or personal issues. This unit will examine the causes of stress, and how one can alleviate stress. The final section of the unit discusses counselling.

7.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss stress and its causes
- Explain how to cope with stress
- Define counselling

7.2 STRESS

When confronted with an uncomfortable situation like appearing for an interview, giving a formal speech, missing a deadline or ending of an important relationship, different people will have different feelings and reactions—some negative and some positive. Stress refers to the body's physiological, emotional, and psychological responses to an individual's well-being. When the response is in the form of a deviation from healthy functioning, the state is called *distress* (Quick et

al. 1997). The reaction which activates and motivates people to achieve their goals, change their environment, and face life's challenges is called *eustress*. In other words, this is the stress that is required for survival. However, most research focuses on distress because it is a significant concern in the organizational setting (Sauter and Murphy 1995).

7.2.1 Types and Causes of Stress

Stress at the organizational level can emanate from different factors. A few of these are discussed in this section.

Task demands: Stress from the task demand emerges from changes enforced on employees. Change often brings in uncertainty and unpredictability. Change emerges from changes in the economic condition, technology, leadership, and structure. Any kind of change requires adjustments from the employees. If one is not able to respond to these changes effectively, it adds on to the level of stress.

Role demands: Certain negative characteristics of a person's role at work can increase the likelihood of his experiencing stress. Job role demands include high workloads, idle period of time, job ambiguity, and conflicting performance expectations. Let's take for example a hypothetical case of Sona Khanna to show how excessive demands at work can stress out employees. A shift in-charge in an electronics plant, Sona is stressed out by frequent emergencies and conflicts at work. She hardly has any authority to match her responsibility. A medical examination after she fainted at work revealed that she was suffering from high blood pressure. Stress caused by the excessive demands at work had started affecting her health.

Overload: When there is an expectation from the organization to accomplish more than the ability of the person, it results in work overload. It has been found that for top- and middle-level managers, unreasonable deadlines and constant pressure are the frequent stressors in their jobs (Zemke 1991). Quantitative overload exists when people are requested to do more work than they can comfortably do in the allocated time, and qualitative overload happens when the job requires them to perform beyond their levels of competence and skills.

Underload: Most people wish to remain occupied and face optimum challenges while performing their jobs. Work underload occurs when people have insufficient work to fill their time or are not allowed to use enough of their skills and abilities. Employees who are underloaded often feel bored, weary, are prone to injury, and frequently absent from work. Machine-based assembly lines are an example of such a work environment. Operating nuclear power plants involves periods of boredom that must be endured simultaneously with sufficient alertness to respond to potential emergencies. Awareness of the costs of an ineffective response to an emergency makes these jobs all the more stressful (Cooper 1987).

Role conflict: Role conflict exists when job functions contains duties or responsibilities that conflict with one another. It is most commonly found among middle managers, who find themselves caught between top-level management and

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lower-level managers (Giordano et al. 1979). A typical example of a role conflict would be when an employee has to decide between the demands made by the boss to put in extra effort while doing the job or a demand made by the colleagues to restrain one's effort while doing the job. Sometimes, role conflict is also experienced when one has to act contrary to one's own belief and value system; for example, when an individual is expected to take unethical or illegal decisions to safeguard the interests of the organization at the cost of his own principles and beliefs.

Role conflict brings about increased tension and reduced satisfaction to the person concerned. In addition, it also destroys the level of trust and respect between the two parties concerned, especially the one who is exerting conflicting role pressures on the role incumbent. The results of this in the form of decreased morale and social and psychological pressure can prove to be very costly for the person and the organization.

Physical demands: The physical demands of the workplace can also have a devastating impact on the mental and physical health of the employees. Poor working conditions in the form of extreme temperatures, loud noises, too much or too little lighting, radiation, and air pollutants are some examples of working conditions that can take a toll on employees. The first impact of these factors is on job performance, which starts deteriorating. High travel demands or long-distance commuting, excessive travel, and long hours all add up to increased stress and reduced performance. In addition to this, advancements in technology which provides immense relief and efficiency to people who are proficient at it can cause damage and stress to those who are averse to it.

With the increase in the number of call centres and business process outsourcing firms (BPOs) in the business environment, the threat of physical demands on employees has increased in intensity and can be the cause of stress-related disorders if not checked immediately.

Career development: One of the major sources of stress in organizations today is the aspiration level of employees. The issues related to career planning and development such as job security, promotions, transfers and other developmental processes like under-promotion (failure to grow in the job as per the aspiration levels) or over-promotions (promotion to a job that exceeds the competency levels of employees) can create high anxiety and stress among the persons concerned. Whenever any change is introduced in the organization, employees are concerned about its effects on their future. The employees experience many career-related concerns such as, "Will I be able to contribute effectively in the new job? Is there a possibility of growth? Is the new job secure?" These concerns are the main sources of stress among them.

Organizational politics: Each and every employee of the organization is a part of a formal or an informal group or team. Good working relationship with peers, subordinates, and superiors is very crucial for the successful performance of the

organization and also to help employees to achieve their personal and organizational goals. The disregard for each other in the organization results in rude behaviour and becomes a cause for stress. A high level of political behaviour or office politics can also be a source of stress for managers and employees. A by-product of power struggles within an organization is heightened competition and increased stress for participants. Managers who are caught up in power games and political alliances also pass on pressure to subordinates (Matteson and Ivancevich 1987).

Aggressive behaviour: A very common form of aggressive behaviour in organizations is observed in the form of violence and sexual harassment. Aggressive behaviour that intentionally threatens or causes physical harm to other employees has been defined as workplace violence. It has been found to be one of the major sources of stress in firms (Atkinson 2001).

Environmental Factors

The environment in which the organizations operate has a profound impact on their working. The economic, political, and technological events happening in the external environment cause stress in varying degrees as they have many uncertainties associated with them. The anxiety aroused by uncertain environmental factors carries over into the workplace and then to our personal lives. Some of these factors are included here.

Economic uncertainty: Downsizing, rightsizing, retrenchment, restructuring, etc. are all done in the name of efficiency and cost reduction to improve profitability. The employees who are made redundant as a result of these exercises are forced to look for other means of sustenance. With the regulatory announcement made by the government, organizations are left to find ways to manage these uncertainties which can cause anxiety and stress both for the employer and the employees.

Technological changes: Advancements in technology in the form of automation, computerization, and robotics has contributed immensely to the productivity and profitability of organizations. However, it also has caused displacement of skilled workers who have to now unlearn and learn new skills to match up with the expectations of the organization. The knowledge of advanced technology also creates a disparity between the new breed of workers and the old masters of the game. Older employees are generally resistant to learning necessary technical skills and competing against the younger employees who are proficient in them. This gap creates a feeling of negativity and antagonism between the two breeds of workers, thereby generating stress.

Political uncertainty: Political disturbance in the external environment has tremendous impact on the working of business organizations. The philosophies, policies, and the systems approved by the political party which is in power determine the ways organizations have to operate. This is more visible in government-funded organizations like aerospace, defence, and science and technology. Even unemployed persons can feel stressed out about political uncertainties as they might affect their social security and welfare.

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7.2.2 Coping with Stress

Stress is an aspect of our life that cannot be avoided. Since it cannot be eliminated completely, one needs to understand the techniques and strategies to control its effects and thereby enjoy more productive, satisfying lives both at the workplace and away from the workplace. Since the source of stress lies both at the individual level and at the organizational level, the techniques to control the negative impact of stress have to be identified both at the individual and at the organizational level.

The management of stress consists of the following three-step process:

1. **Awareness:** The first step towards managing stress is to be aware of the symptoms of stress, specially the negative ones. Some of the consequences of stress in terms of physiological, psychological, and behavioural consequences have been discussed earlier.
2. **Identifying the source:** Once the symptoms are palpable, the second step is to diagnose the source of the factors that lead to stress.
3. **Coping with stress:** After diagnosing the stressors, one needs to develop strategies to cope with them. Stressors can be dealt with in two ways: one is by directly removing or changing them and secondly, by helping individuals modify or manage their emotional feelings and reactions in constructive ways (Folkman and Lazarus 1988).

7.3 ESCAPING STRESS

We know that some stress is necessary for optimum efficiency. We also have a general idea as to the level of stress that is destructive to job performance. Accordingly, it is necessary for individuals, as well as management to take steps to reduce stress to acceptable levels.

Individual strategies

It is necessary for the physical and psychological well-being of the person to reduce or eliminate the negative effects of stress. It is possible to manage stress, at least in the sense that a person can either avoid stressful conditions, change them or learn to cope with them. There are a number of ways by which stress can be managed so that the person has control over his life. Some of these strategies deal with the individual himself and focus on improving his physical and mental strength to deal with stress from all sources and some strategies deal specifically with job-related stress.

Some of the stress reducing strategies that strengthen the individual's well-being are:

• ***Readjustment of life's goals***

Due to severe competition to 'get ahead', most individuals set very high standards and goals for themselves. They are always trying to do too much in too little time.

They have tremendous fear of failing and they are running to nowhere. These high expectations and limited resources to reach such expectations result in stress. Accordingly, people must readjust their goals and make sure they have the ability and proper resources to reach such goals. Perhaps the goals should be established after resources have been analysed.

- ***Social support***

There is a saying that, 'a friend in need is a friend indeed'. Good friends become highly supportive during times of stress and crisis. Close and reliable friends may give a sympathetic hearing to your problems, a more objective assessment of the situation and support your sagging self-confidence or self-esteem. Many people turn to God for support during times of difficulties, believing God to be their 'best friend'. The idea of confession to a priest in the Catholic religion is primarily meant to receive moral support for stress created by some individual actions. Thus, God, priests, family, friends can all be a source of great comfort during times of stress.

- ***Planning life in advance***

While the attitude of 'whatever will be, will be' is a way to accept the unexpected difficulties in life. It is better to project events in life and plan to confront them when they occur. Many times, people create situations that induce stress because they either did not plan or they did a bad job of planning; for example, students who plan the pace of their studies during the semester seldom find exams excessively stressful. Accordingly, if we plan the proper utilization of our resources of time and money, the chances are that we will have less stress.

- ***Physiological fitness***

There is evidence to suggest that individuals who exercise and so strengthen their endurance and cardiovascular system, are much less likely to suffer from certain types of stress-related illnesses. As the correlation between physical fitness and stress resistance has become clear, many organizations have added facilities for physical exercise in their premises. With proper exercise, diet control and non-smoking habits, blood pressure and cholesterol levels become low and the body becomes more resistant to pressure. People are more likely to get physically sick or emotionally depressed if they are overweight or poorly nourished.

- ***Yoga***

During the last twenty-five years, there has been a growing interest in yoga as a stress reduction strategy. The word 'yoga' means union and according to Amarjit Sethi, it 'implies union with the ultimate where the process of desiring has come to an end and where stress is non-existent.' To a common man, yoga is a structured set of exercises and body movements with deep breathing and mind concentration, so that it is a way of getting away from the stressors. To a serious student of yoga, it is a methodology to integrate body and mind forces to bring them into a state of harmony with the ultimate goal of being in unison with the Infinite. At the lower levels of physical and mental fitness, yoga consists of certain postural habits (known

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as *asanas*) and these postures are non-dynamic, passive and stable, resulting in increased flexibility of skeletal structure. This in turn stimulates the nervous system. Accordingly, with proper 'asanas' and controlled breathing, the neuromuscular coordination is strengthened, affecting glandular activity that is responsible for physical as well as mental health. Thus, the development of a sound mind in a sound body improves the stress coping capabilities.

- ***Meditation***

Meditation involves concentration of mind away from stress producing areas, sitting in a comfortable position, closing the eyes and clearing the mind from all disturbing thoughts. Any form of concentration that redirects our thought processes away from daily concerns can be considered meditation. Primarily, it involves silently repeating a single syllable or 'mantra' over and over gain. This concentration on the 'mantra' shuts out other distractions and results in physical and mental relaxation at its peak. The place of meditation should be such that the mediator is not disturbed by any outside force such as telephone, children or visitors. This technique was popularized by Maharishi Mahesh Yogi, an Indian mystic, and the method is known as 'Transcendental Meditation' or TM.

Another form of meditation that has grown popular is the Benson's method or 'Relaxation Response'. This technique is similar to TM and is designed to elicit 'relaxation response' that is considered to be opposite to 'stress response'. The basic idea is to block extraneous and distracting thoughts from one's mind. It is a form of breathing meditation, where the mediator consciously thinks of a word or a symbol on every breath out. The idea is to dwell upon a particular word or sound or to gaze at a symbol or even concentrate on a particular feeling. Relaxation response should become an integral part of behaviour so that life stresses are effectively countered. Benson recommends 'relaxation response' breaks instead of coffee breaks to rejuvenate workers.

Check Your Progress

1. What is eustress?
2. What does meditation involve?

7.4 COUNSELLING

According to Ghosh and Ghorpade, "Personnel counselling is defined as discussion of an emotional problem with an employee, with the general objective of reducing it so that performance is maintained at adequate level or even improved upon."

According to B.J. Prasantham, "Counselling is a relationship between the counsellor and the counselee characterized by trust and openness, in a one to one, or a small group relationship, whereby the counselee is helped to work through his

interpersonal and or intrapersonal problems and crises. He is also helped to mobilize his inner and outer resources and to find new options in facing life".

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According to Keith Davis, "Counselling is discussion of a problem that usually has emotional content with an employee in order to help the employee cope with it better. Counselling seeks to improve employee mental health."

From the above definitions counselling implies a number of characteristics. They are:

1. Counselling is an exchange of ideas and feelings between two people, a counsellor and a counselee, so it is an act of communication. Thus, successful counselling depends on communication skills.
2. Counselling facilitates the employees in coping with their emotional problems, which on the other hand helps in improving the organizational problems. Counselling also helps the organization to be more human and considerate with peoples problems.
3. Counselling is generally confidential and hence employees feel free to talk openly about their problems involving both jobs and personal problems.
4. Counselling may be performed by both professionals and non-professionals.
5. Counselling enhances job satisfaction and morale of the employees.

Managing Dissatisfaction and Frustration Through Counselling: An employee who has worked very hard expects to be rewarded for his work. If he does not get any reward, not even appreciation, he feels frustrated. We can cite examples after examples of frustration and disappointment. Everyday we face situations which frustrate us.

(a) The Dynamics of Frustration

What causes frustration? Let us take an example of X who felt frustrated because he worked hard and his boss had promised him a promotion, but he did not get the position when the announcements were made. How frustrated did he feel?

Several factors contribute to frustration. These are goal-related factors and are shown in the following formula given by Pareek.

$$F = E \times V \times O + I + P$$

where,

F = Frustration

E = Expectation to achieve the goal

V = Valence (attractiveness of the goal)

O = Opportunity to achieve the goal in the near future (low)

I = Investment of effort and other inputs in the achievement of the goal

P = Publicity of the expected achievement (knowledge of others)

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As may be seen from the formula, three variables have a multiplicative function—they enhance frustration faster. If one of them is zero, the resulting frustration will be zero. In the example given above, if X had no expectation to get promoted (his goal) he would have no or very little frustration even if he did not get promoted.

Similarly, if the goal, (getting promoted) was not seen as attractive or valuable, there would be little frustration. The more attractive the goal the more the frustration caused by the obstacle in achieving the goal. In the same way, if X saw the possibility of getting promotion very soon (say, in the next batch) the frustration caused by not getting promoted would not be much. The more frequent opportunities one has for achieving the goal, the less is the frustration caused by deprivation of the goal at one time.

The other two elements (effort invested and publicity of expected reward) have an additive function. They add to the frustration, though not in the same proportion. The more effort one has invested in the process of achieving a goal, the higher is the frustration on deprivation of the goal. For example, X's frustration would be higher because he worked very hard for the promotion. Similarly, the more others know about the possible goal of a person, the higher the frustration if he does not reach the goal. For example, if more people knew that X was likely to get promoted, he would feel more frustrated compared with a situation in which no one knew that he was likely to be rewarded.

(b) Circularity of Frustration

When a person is frustrated or disappointed he may react in a particular way, and trigger a cycle of frustration, or one of hope. The frustration cycle is as follows: adaptive deterioration – isolation – distorted – perception – defensive behaviour. The hope cycle is the opposite: realistic analysis – exploration – insight – problem solving.

Disappointment may cause loss of flexibility and what may be called 'adaptive deterioration'. A person may be preoccupied with disappointment, leading to neglect of work and signs of general deterioration in the standard of performance. A disappointed employee may neglect his work, may cause delays, may make errors, etc. The frustrated person may be annoyed with himself for such deterioration, but he may continue in such a state. Often others may not approve of such behaviour. The person then feels, and gets isolated, and tries to cope with the situation as well as he can. However, isolation often leads to fantasies, exaggerations, and distorted perceptions of the situation. A frustrated employee may see his boss in 'collusion' with others in creating the disappointment. He/she is likely to see himself/herself as a victim, wrongly seeing many normal happenings as a part of the frustration-producing events. In response to such distorted perception, the frustrated person is likely to show behaviour which will help the person escape or defend against anxiety, and maintain and even enhance self esteem by absolving the self of any responsibility in the deteriorating frustration cycle. These behaviours use what are

NOTES

called “defence mechanisms” (mechanisms to defend against anxiety) and the behaviour can be called defensive behaviour. It does not solve the problem, but helps to reduce anxiety. The frustrated person may deny that he is disappointed, or he may see it as a design of several factors, e.g. people being jealous of his ability or popularity, and so on. The defensive behaviour often justifies and reinforces adaptive deterioration, thus completing the frustration cycle.

Alternatively in the cycle of hope a disappointed individual, instead of being overwhelmed with disappointment, and losing interest in his work, analyses the situation with greater objectivity, understanding what has caused what, where things went wrong etc. This is likely to lead to exploration with others, collection of information, and discovery of facts. With more and comprehensive information, the person is likely to get a better insight into the whole situation, needing to deal with the situation. This is problem-solving behaviour. Problem-solving behaviour reinforces realistic analysis, completing the cycle of hope. Both the cycles of frustration and hope, are self-perpetuating. As the cycle advances, it gets stronger, and is likely to repeat itself.

(c) Coping Behaviour

In our everyday life we face disappointments and frustrations. An employee may be upset when he sees his child faring poorly in examination, or missing his bus and being late for school. We can recount hundreds of such everyday frustrating experiences. The critical aspect is how he deals with such situations. This we call coping behaviour.

A general manager, faced with the frustrating experience of fall in productivity, can behave in a variety of ways. He may be angry in general and with his staff (aggression); he may rush to solve the production problems, as he knows the job well (regression); he may explain away the problem to his senior (flight) or he may sit with his people, analyse the data, and take decisions to improve the situation (exploration). These four modes of coping are not simple. They take several forms. We will discuss them in detail.

(d) Managing Frustration

The supervisors are frequently required to deal with frustration of their employees. The following sequential steps are suggested for effective management of employee frustration.

(i) ***Listen to the Feelings of the Staff:*** The first step is taken by the supervisor by understanding the feelings and points of view of the frustrated employee(s). This may be done by asking the employee(s) to state the problem, their feelings, and their perceptions. Instead of being defensive, if the employees express negative impressions, the manager may do well to patiently listen to them. One test of listening, and a desirable behaviour assuring the employees that the manager listened to them is to restate their points of view, feelings and perceptions at the end of the session before taking the next step.

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(ii) ***Share Own Feelings of Disappointment:*** If a supervisor is able to empathise with his employees, he may be able to reach them. In most situations producing frustration in employees, the manager is also experiencing disappointment. If an employee is not rewarded, the supervisors are also disappointed. It may help in building rapport with the employees if the manager shares his own disappointments with them. This should not be done as a gimmick, but if he has some feelings these need to be shared.

(iii) ***Share Feelings of Guilt (if any):*** Sometimes the supervisors may partly contribute to the disappointment of the employees. He may build high expectations, and the employees may feel frustrated because the expectations are not met. Or he may promise something to an employee which he is not able to honour. Before any explanation is given, the manager may share his feeling of guilt in arousing expectations, etc.

(iv) ***Help the Employees to Own Up their Feelings:*** By sharing his feelings and owning up feelings of guilt the supervisor may help the employees own up their own feelings of disappointment, anger, etc. This may help in taking constructive steps.

(v) ***Help the Employees to Accept and Confront Reality:*** The first step in constructive action is to acknowledge the reality and be ready to deal with it. Clearing the feelings will help the employee-supervisor team to move forward, and not get fixated at feelings. The new situation as it exists may be clearly stated, understood and accepted as a reality.

(vi) ***Help the Employees Assess Damage by Frustration:*** Frustration has damaging physical effects (sleeplessness, tension, loss of appetite), social effects (effect on personal relationships, reduced social contacts, lack of enjoyment of life together), and on work (neglect of work, errors, fall in quality). Even if the work in the organization suffers the main damage is done to the frustrated employee. The employees need to understand and realise this.

(vii) ***Develop Alternatives to Solve the Problem:*** The final step is to involve the frustrated employees in generating alternatives in dealing with the problem and in taking constructive steps. While employees generate the alternatives, the supervisors may suggest some possibilities. Being dissatisfied the employees may not be able to think of some creative alternatives. The manager can raise such possibilities with them.

Need for Counselling

Some conditions like frustration, job dissatisfaction, resistance to change, intergroup conflict, and interpersonal relationship are the major causes of counselling needs. In such a situation counselling facilitates in reducing the employee’s stressful conditions and thereby returning to normal job performance and behaviour. Thus, counselling helps an emotionally disturbed employee to become normal, develop self-confidence, self control, understanding so that he can work effectively.

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(a) Conflict

Conflict arises when there is disagreement between two or more individuals or groups and each individual or group tries to gain acceptance of its views or objectives over the other. Conflict is undesirable and it should be avoided and resolved as soon as possible. Personal conflict is more emotional in nature and reflects such feelings as anger, distrust, fear, resentment, clash in personality, antagonism, and tension. Organizational conflict on the other hand involves disagreement on such factors as allocation of resources, organizational policies and procedures, nature of assignments and distribution of rewards. Inter-personal conflict is more serious of the two as it deeply affects the person's psychological being. We feel concerned we have a need to protect our self-image and self-esteem from damage by others. When they threaten it, we get emotionally upset.

Management experts are of the view that an environment of goodwill and trust should be developed in order to avoid conflict. Proper organizational structures, authority relationship and good human relations can help in preventing conflict. Counselling facilitates in resolving the conflict by reducing emotional blockages.

(b) Stress

As discussed, stress is a condition of strain that has a direct bearing on emotions, thought processes and physical conditions of a person. When it is excessive, it can threaten one's ability to cope with the environment. People who are stressed may become nervous and develop chronic worry. They are easily provoked to anger and are unable to relax. Stress also leads to physical disorders because the internal body system changes to try to cope with stress. The causes of stress can be classified under two heads:

(i) On-the-job Stress: The job itself may be the basic cause of stress. Employees may not be able to cope with the demands of the job or the requirements of the job may be unclear to them. On such occasions the employees may feel that they have work overload, pressures they cannot cope, tension, anxiety and insecurity. All these feelings cause stress.

(ii) Off-the-job Stress: Off the job stress also affects the functioning of the employee. Causes of off the job stress are numerous. Some of them are—financial problems, death in the family, marital problems, and problems with children.

Stress is not necessarily undesirable. Eustress or mild stress, in fact, tends to stimulate performance in most persons. It is beneficial as it encourages going ahead against hindrances. Excessive amount of stress leads to distress. It is harmful in nature.

Ability to tolerate stress is not the same in all the people. People differ in their tolerance to stress. Some people can tolerate much greater stress than others.

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Stress is thus one of the most important aspects of the employees, which needs to be kept at a level low enough to tolerate without developing disorders.

Frustration is another major cause of stress. When an employee is repeatedly interfered or hindered with that prevents him from achieving a desired goal, results in frustration. There are various kinds of reactions of frustration—aggression, apathy, withdrawal, regression, physical disorders, substitute objectives, negativism, fantasy, etc.

Types of Counselling

There are three forms or types of counselling:

(a) Directive

Directive counselling is the process of hearing a person's emotional problems, deciding what he should do, and then telling and motivating him to do it.

Under directive counselling, the counsellor performs all the functions of counselling except reorientation. If the directive counsellor listens to the employee's problems carefully and make the counselee realise that his advice is worthwhile directive counselling can be successful.

(b) Non-Directive

Non-directive or client-centred counselling is the process of skilfully listening to a person and encouraging him to explain his emotional problems, understanding them and determining the courses of action. It focuses on the counselee rather than the counsellor as judge and advisor and hence it is 'client centred'.

Professional counsellors generally follow non-directive counselling. They facilitate the counselee in discovering and finding a suitable course of action by himself. The counsellor not only tries to solve the immediate problem of the counselee but also attempts to bring about an attitudinal change in him.

Besides having certain advantages, non-directive counselling has several limitations, it is time consuming, it requires professional counsellors, it is costly and so on.

(c) Participative

Participative counselling seeks to establish a close mental relationship between the counsellor and the counselee. It leads to better exchange of ideas, information, knowledge, feelings and values between them and helps in solving problems of the counselee.

Drawbacks of Counselling

1. Counselling may help an employee for better adjustment with his superior but it does not improve the working environment.
2. Counselling attempts to change individual attitudes and behaviour, which does not last in the long run.

3. Counselling usually follows an appeasement policy. Employees do not want to annoy the management by telling the reality.

Check Your Progress

3. What is counselling?
4. What is participative counselling?

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7.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The reaction which activates and motivates people to achieve their goals, change their environment, and face life's challenges is called *eustress*.
2. Meditation involves concentration of mind away from stress producing areas, sitting in a comfortable position, closing the eyes and clearing the mind from all disturbing thoughts.
3. Counselling is a relationship between the counsellor and the counselee characterized by trust and openness, in a one to one, or a small group relationship, whereby the counselee is helped to work through his interpersonal and or intrapersonal problems and crises.
4. Participative counselling seeks to establish a close mental relationship between the counsellor and the counselee.

7.6 SUMMARY

- Stress refers to the body's physiological, emotional, and psychological responses to an individual's well-being.
- Stress from the task demand emerges from changes enforced on employees. Change often brings in uncertainty and unpredictability.
- Role conflict exists when job functions contains duties or responsibilities that conflict with one another. It is most commonly found among middle managers, who find themselves caught between top-level management and lower-level managers.
- One of the major sources of stress in organizations today is the aspiration level of employees.
- The economic, political, and technological events happening in the external environment cause stress in varying degrees as they have many uncertainties associated with them.
- It is necessary for the physical and psychological well-being of the person to reduce or eliminate the negative effects of stress. It is possible to manage

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stress, at least in the sense that a person can either avoid stressful conditions, change them or learn to cope with them.

- According to Ghosh and Ghorpade, "Personnel counselling is defined as discussion of an emotional problem with an employee, with the general objective of reducing it so that performance is maintained at adequate level or even improved upon."
- Some conditions like frustration, job dissatisfaction, resistance to change, intergroup conflict, and interpersonal relationship are the major causes of counselling needs.

7.7 KEY WORDS

- **Stress:** It refers to the body's physiological, emotional, and psychological responses to an individual's well-being.
- **Frustration:** It is the feeling of being upset or annoyed as a result of being unable to change or achieve something.
- **Conflict:** It means a serious disagreement or argument, typically a protracted one.

7.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What is distress?
2. What are the drawbacks of counselling?
3. Discuss the three forms of counselling.

Long Answer Questions

1. Examine the various factors that cause stress.
2. Describe the ways one can cope with stress.
3. How can mediation help in relieving stress? Discuss.

7.9 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 8 ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

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Structure

8.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit will discuss organizational change and development. Change is a phenomenon that pushes us out of our comfort zone. It is for the better or for the worse, depending on how it is viewed. Change has an adjustment timeline that varies from person to person. Change has a negative effect on those who do not want to let go. Being flexible is the key. For instance, a roller coaster ride can symbolically be indicative of change—it can be fun if you know when to lean and create balance. Change is not related to the mantra 'just hang in there', but the mantra 'you can make it'. It is not associated with worrying. Change spurs you to achieve your best. It will cause you to learn. On the other hand, the term 'Organization Development' (OD) was coined by Richard Beckhard in the mid 1950s, as a response to the need for integrating organizational needs with individual needs. OD came into prominence in the 1960s and grew in response to needs. OD is a strategy of intervention in which group processes focus on the entire culture of an organization so that a planned change could be brought about. According to Harold M. F. Rush, OD 'seeks to change beliefs, attitudes, values, structures and practices so that the organization can better adapt to technology and live with the fast pace of change'. It seeks to use behavioural science knowledge to help organizations to adjust more rapidly to change.

8.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Analyse the significance of organizational change
- Discuss the causes of change

- State the sources of resistance to change
- Discuss the meaning, nature and scope of organizational development
- Describe the phases of organizational development intervention

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8.2 MEANING, FACTORS AND IMPORTANCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

If we see around us, life is changing every moment. *Maya*, the Sanskrit word, means 'life is an illusion'—the world around us is steady and not changing. A good leader looks beyond the illusion of 'changelessness' and unearths opportunities for change. There have been several passionate arguments put forward by academics about which comes first—a change in attitude or a change in behaviour. In organizational terms, this means do we help the people challenge their beliefs and thus bring about behavioural change, or do we encourage them to experiment with behavioural change in the hope that different results will revolutionize their thinking. Well, the answer is both.

Change takes place even when employees do not believe it will. They may not be susceptible to change or even detest the idea of behaving differently, but as long as they stay open to the possibility, they are on the road to change. This is because the act of doing something differently will start to influence their belief systems. In addition, the response received from others will reinforce the new behaviour. For example, a CEO of an organization might want to be less positioned, more flexible and visibly vulnerable in looking for conflict resolutions vis-a-vis peers. However, this CEO might have a dualistic approach to thinking—perceiving two alternatives to every problem: 'him' or 'they'. Thus, from this perspective, there could only be one 'winner', and the CEO will obviously be determined to win.

The management should realize the value of effective employees' cooperation and collaboration, and motivation in the workplace. Before putting into practice a change in an organization, managers should understand that different people hold dissimilar opinions about change. Also, not all employees are candid and willing to be straightforward with their managers. Therefore, managers should have the initiative to interact with all employees and keep them informed about any organizational change. By communicating and listening to employees, managers can be aware of their unfulfilled needs and resistance to change. In other words, the communication should be improved between managers and employees, in places where employees are not too keen on change.

While implementing organizational change, managers should be able to understand employees' attitudes, but also they should keep in mind how the employees feel. As leaders, managers should guide and direct employees along the organizational change process, appreciate the significance of employees' motivation to proceed with change, and be open to new ideas that come from

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employees. Listening and explaining to employees is an essential process to convince them about the projected benefits that are expected from the introduced change.

As soon as the change is implemented, managers should continue to communicate with employees about the benefits of the new working environment. This will promote an open exchange of ideas and information among all parties. By being helpful, managers can discover to what extent change affects employees and take remedial actions immediately to support them. For example, managers should be aware that although organizational change impacts that bring positive results into the industry do not necessarily bring about the same outcome to employees. Change of a working system may increase employees' income with extra workload which can in turn creating fatigue and low spirits.

Levels of Change

There are various levels within the organizational domain where changes can be brought about for operational enhancement of the organization as well as desirable behaviour of members. The various types of changes that can have considerable impact on the organizational culture are:

Strategic change: This is a change in the very mission of the organization. A single mission may have to be changed to multiple missions. For example, when British Airways acquired a major part of US Air, the culture of the entire organization had to be modified to accommodate various aspects of American organizational culture into the British organizational culture.

Structural change: Decentralized operations and participative management style have been seen as more recent trends in the organizational structure. Since these structural changes shift the authority and responsibility to generally lower level management, it has a major impact on an organization's social climate and members have to be prepared to develop a team spirit as well as acquire skills to make on-the-spot decisions at points of operations.

Process-oriented change: These changes relate to technological developments, information processing, automation and use of robotics in the manufacturing operations. This means replacing or retraining personnel, heavy capital equipment investment and operational changes. This would affect the organizational culture and hence changes in the behaviour patterns of members.

People-oriented change: Even though, any organizational change affects people in some form, it is important that the behaviour and attitudes of the members be predictable and in accordance with the expectations of the organization and be consistent with the mission and policies of the enterprise. These changes are directed towards performance improvement, group cohesion, dedication and loyalty to the organization as well as developing a sense of self-actualization among the members. These can be developed by closer interaction with employees and by special behavioural training and modification sessions.

Importance of Change

This external environment affects the organizations both directly and indirectly. The organizations have no control over the variables in such an environment. Accordingly, the organizations cannot change the environment but must change themselves to align with the environment.

External forces for change arise from general environment as well as from task environment. The general environment that affects the organizations indirectly consists of economic, political, legal, socio-cultural and technological forces and these forces keep the organizations alert so that they become aware of any changes in the direction and momentum of these forces. For example, when due to oil crisis, people started buying small fuel efficient cars from Japan, the American automobile manufacturers who were accustomed to producing large luxury cars, spent billions of dollars in the mid 1970s in retooling the new machinery to build smaller cars. Similarly, changes in laws regarding control of air pollution or dumping of chemical wastes and economical changes such as inflation rate, disposable money supply, unemployment rate – all constitute sources of change for the organizations. Social changes such as changes in the taste of clothing, or introduction of laptop or notebook computers made many companies large and successful while at the same time destroying many other companies who were slow or unwilling to adapt to the change.

Task-related environment has direct influence on the health of the organizations and it consists of customers, competitors, suppliers, labour, stockholders and so on. All these factors can induce a change in the organizational direction. Competitors can influence a change in an organization by the price structure and product lines. Price wars in airline fares have driven many airlines out of business. Stockholders can influence organizations because they can take action against the board of directors if they feel that the board is not acting in their best interests. Customers have been known to change their loyalty for better quality product and better service. Accordingly, organizations cannot rest on status quo and must remain dynamic and be able to change quickly to adjust to changed environment.

Change Process

Managers who are interested in implementing change are required to be aware of two important aspects of change: (1) Diagnosis and (2) Implementation

1. **Diagnosis:** The first, most important stage of any change effort is diagnosis. Broadly defined, the skills of **diagnosis** include putting forward correct questions at correct time, assessing the organizational culture, developing the strategies for research and gathering information or data, and developing ways to process and interpret data. In diagnosing change, managers should attempt to find out: (a) what is *actually* happening now in a particular situation; (b) what is *likely* to happen in the future if no change effort is made; (c) what would people *ideally* want in a situation like this; and

(d) what are the *blocks,* or restraints, stopping movement from the actual to the ideal.

There are two steps in the diagnostic process. These are discussed below.

NOTES

(i) **Point of view:** There are various people whose interests have to be protected by the organization. It is, therefore, necessary to decide from whose point of view you are to observe the organization and from whose point of view the change should be implemented—your own, your boss, your associates, your followers or an consultant? Ideally, to assess the complete problem, you need to examine the condition from the perspective of the person whose life would be influenced by the change. Their interest is of great importance for an organization to sustain and grow in the present fast-moving world.

(ii) **Identification of problem(s):** Any change effort begins with the identification of problem(s). There exists a problem in a situation when what actually happens (the real) differs from what, according to you, should happen (the ideal). What is important is the end result that an organization can offer to its customers. Is the work group functioning in a harmonious manner? Is there a conflicting situation in the organization? If the response is in the negative for the former and positive in the latter, then there is a problem of behavioural nature and suitable change efforts may be required sooner than later. Before implementing any change, a leader will have to observe the battle indications in the organization. High level of absenteeism, more wastage in the use of raw materials, irrational behaviour of various employees, and not meeting various targets are enough indications to show that a problem exists, that it needs to diagnosed and the kind of change required to be effected needs to be decided. The discrepancy may be in the end result variables like low production or insufficient sales by the marketing department. Alternatively, problems may exist in causal factors, that is, the independent variables like leadership style, motivation levels of the employees, or the delegation of authority and empowerment. Depending upon the situation, suitable change strategies may have to be employed by the organization.

2. **Implementation:** It involves using the data collected during diagnosis to accomplish the targets and plan for the organizational change. Questions such as the following must be asked: How can change be affected in a work group or organization, and how will it be received? What is adaptive, and what is resistant to change within the environment?

Causes of Change

Change is inevitable. Nothing is permanent, except for change. It is the management's duty to see that change is managed properly. Organizations must

keep a watch on the environment and incorporate suitable changes that the situation may demand. Change is a continuous phenomenon. Organizations must be proactive in effecting change. Even in the most stable organizations, change is necessary just to maintain a certain level of stability. The major environmental forces that make change necessary are technology, market forces and socio-economic factors. Resistance to change is counterproductive for growth and destructive by nature; it is, therefore, undesirable. Managers must, hence, evolve policies to effect change. According to Barney and Griffin, 'the primary reason cited for organizational problems is the failure by managers to properly anticipate or respond to forces for change'.

The following are the characteristics of change:

- Change refers to any alteration that occurs in the overall work environment of an organization. It relates to changes in technology, organizational structure, working processes, work environment, organizational policy and the roles people play.
- The introduction of change in one part of an organization forces a change in other parts of the organization. If the change is beneficial, people accept it willingly. If it is not desirable, there is great resistance. If it is of no consequence to the people, they may adopt an attitude of indifference.
- If they consider the change detrimental to their growth and prosperity, they may resist through counter pressure. This reaction is based on their perception of the change and not necessarily on reality or facts.

There are various factors that must be considered in order to implement change. Organizations undergo change because of several reasons. Some of the external causes are as follows:

- Government policies
- Economic changes
- Competition from peers
- Cost of raw materials
- Pressure groups/lobbies
- Information technology
- Scarcity of labour
- Societal pressures
- Legal requirements

Some of the internal causes are as follows:

- Leadership changes
- Decline in profitability
- Change in employee profiles

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- Trade unionism
- Low morale

The organizational changes that are commonly seen in the contemporary world are downsizing/rightsizing, introduction of new technology, mergers and acquisitions.

Forces that Introduce Change

There are two major forces that introduce changes. These are:

1. External reasons

Technology is a major external force that calls for change. In recent times, information technology (IT) has had a remarkable impact on the ability of managers to use information to arrive at a decision. Storage, retrieval of information and its utilization are important aspects of technology. Where human beings cannot operate, robots have been introduced to work for and on behalf of human beings. Financial decisions, operations, product features, new product development, market potential and marketing strategies are changing at a fast pace and organizations must carry out appropriate and timely change so as to avoid being left behind in the race. With liberalization, the market has become one large entity. Organizations must, therefore, be highly sensitive to changes in the external environment. The external environment is task-related and general in nature. A task-related environment has a direct influence on the health of an organization. It consists of customers, competitors, suppliers, labour and stakeholders. All these factors induce change in the organization. The general environment consists of political, legal, economic, socio-cultural and technological forces and change in government policies or fiscal policies that have a direct impact on the organization. For example, a change in the needs, expectations and desires of society for housing has changed the outlook of the financial sector and loans are now easily available to all sections of society.

2. Internal reasons

Once organizations adapt to external change, the managers have to take appropriate steps as far as internal systems are concerned—change of process, modification to human behaviour, training and development of the workforce based on new technology and adopting new polices that are beneficial to the organization. Owing to current social changes in which women are taking up jobs in greater numbers, childcare, more and frequent rest periods and greater flexibility of time may be necessary. Workers are more educated and are aware of their duties and rights. This may necessitate change in corporate policies towards wage and salary structure and implementation, promotion policy and management obligation towards them. Customers, shareholders, boards of directors and employees may bring about changes in the internal environment. These, however, have to be in line with the external factors and not arbitrary. Change, which is deliberately designed and implemented, is 'planned change'. This is carried out to counter threats and encash

opportunities. 'Reactive changes' are unknown and caused as a response to sudden surprises like change in price of a particular product. It is, therefore, necessary that the management is 'proactive' in incorporating change with fewer surprises. It must build on the organization's strengths and take appropriate preventive actions on its weaknesses in order to be competitive in the marketplace.

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Proactive Vs. Reaction Change

According to Nadler discontinuous change involves a break from the past and a major reconstruction of the entire organization. Reactive change occurs when an organization must respond to environmental changes. Nadler et al., refer to anticipatory change as occurring when an organization acts in anticipation of changes that may occur in the future. Whereas incremental and discontinuous changes refer to the continuity of change, reactive and anticipatory changes address the timing of it. These four types of change also differ by their driving force, focus, pacing, and approach to management, and each has different implications for organizational behaviour. For instance, an organization that experiences both reactive and incremental change typically expresses an adaptive behaviour, whereas an organization experiencing discontinuous and anticipatory change may focus on reorienting itself by fundamentally redefining itself. Unplanned change usually occurs because of a major, sudden surprise to the organization, which causes its members to respond in a highly reactive and disorganized fashion. Unplanned change might occur when the Chief Executive Officer suddenly leaves the organization, significant public relations problems occur, poor product performance quickly results in loss of customers, or other disruptive situations arise. Planned change occurs when leaders in the organization recognize the need for a major change and proactively organize a plan to accomplish the change. Planned change occurs with successful implementation of a Strategic Plan, plan for reorganization, or other implementation of a change of this magnitude. Note that planned change, even though based on a proactive and well done plan, often does not occur in a highly organized fashion. Instead, planned change tends to occur in more of a chaotic and disruptive fashion than expected by participants.

Stability Vs. Change

In every organization, there are found two types of forces: forces of stability and forces of change. In depends on the management to find a balance between the two or give more priority to one and less to another.

Three factors make up the forces of stability in an organization: consistency, maintaining the status quo and predictability. The strategic vision and process are very clearly prescribed and followed within a set structure in such organizations. Some examples of forces of stability are: Mature company hierarchy, Job security, Logical order and flow, Continuity in task or project management, Predictability in role's responsibilities, Confidence in taking risks to find solutions, Formalization of policies and procedures and Consistency and standardization in work.

The factors which define the forces of change in an organization are flexibility and adaptability. These types of organization are more insistent on innovating, setting themselves apart and improving at every stage. Some examples of forces of change in an organization are exploring opportunities for growth and development, adapting to customer feedback, analysing and facing competitive pressure, seeking out creative solutions to problems or challenges, innovating to improve employees or the organization and expanding into new areas internally or externally.

It becomes the duty of the manager to balance the two forces in the organization as per the broad organizational objectives and vision.

8.3 RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Although organizations initiate changes in order to adjust to the changes in their environments but people sometimes resist them. Therefore, managers need to recognize the manifestations of resistance both in themselves and in others, if they want to be more effective in supporting change.

The sources of resistance to change within organizations are classified into organizational sources of resistance and individual sources of resistance.

Organizational Sources of Resistance

According to Daniel Kantz and Robert L Khan, organizational sources of resistance can be divided into following six general groups.

1. Over determination or structural inertia refers to the tendency of an organization's rules, policies and structure to maintain the existing conditions and therefore resist change even when change would benefit the organization more than stability.
2. When an organization tries to change one of its division or part of the division without recognizing the interdependence of the division with other divisions of the organization, then it is said to have a narrow focus of change. Often a part of division cannot be changed without changing the whole division.
3. Group inertia may weaken an individual's attempt to bring about change.
4. Resistance may also take the form of threatened expertise if the change tends to weaken special expertise built after years of experience. Organizational restructuring that involves reducing the number of job categories often meets this kind of resistance.
5. Any change that may alter the power relationships within an organization may meet the form of resistance known as 'threatened power'.
6. Resistance may occur when a change threatens quantum of resource allocation from one part of the organization to another.

Individual Sources of Resistance

According to researchers, individuals have the following reasons for resisting change:

- Simple habits create a lot of resistance. Most people prefer to do their work the way they did it last week rather than learn a new approach.
- Perhaps the biggest cause of employee resistance to change is uncertainty. In the face of impending change, employees are likely to become anxious and nervous. They worry about their ability to meet new job demands therefore, leading to feeling of job insecurity.
- Some people resist change to avoid feeling of loss. For example, many organizations change interventions and alter work arrangements, thus disrupting existing social networks. Social relationships are important to most people, so they resist any change that might adversely affect those relationships. Change may also threaten people's feelings of familiarity and self-confidence.
- People may resist change because their perceptions of underlying circumstances differ from the perceptions of those who are promoting the change.

Overcoming Resistance to Change

Managers need not abandon planned change in the face of resistance. Before recommending specific approaches to overcome resistance, there are three key conclusions that should be kept in mind. First, an organization must be ready for change. Second, the top management should inform the employees about the process of change. Third, the employees' perceptions or interpretations of a change should be considered.

The following methods of overcoming resistance to change are as follows:

- **Participation**: Participation is generally considered the most effective technique for overcoming resistance to change. Employees who take part in planning and implementing change are better able to understand the reasons for the change than those who are not involved. They become committed to the change and make it work. Employees who have the opportunity to express their own ideas and to understand the perspectives of others are likely to accept change gracefully. It is a time consuming process.
- **Education and communication**: Educating employees about the need for and the expected results of an impending change help reduce their resistance. Managers should maintain an open channel of communication while planning and implementing change. However, it is also a time consuming process.
- **Facilitation of change**: Knowing ahead of time that employees are likely to resist change then the manager should do as much as possible to help them cope with uncertainty and feeling of loss. Introducing change gradually, making only necessary changes, announcing changes in advance and allowing

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time for people to adjust to new ways of doing things can help reduce resistance.

- **Force-field analysis**: In almost any situation where a change is being planned, there are forces acting for and against the change. In force-field analysis, the managers list each set of forces and then try to remove or minimize some of the forces acting against the change.
- **Negotiation**: Where someone or some group will clearly lose out in a change and where that group has considerable power to resist, there negotiation is required. Sometimes it is a relatively easy way to avoid major resistance.
- **Manipulation and cooperation**: This is followed when other tactics will not work or are too expensive. It can be quick and inexpensive. However, it can lead to further problems if people feel manipulated.
- **Explicit and implicit coercion**: This is adopted where speed is essential and where the change initiators possess considerable power. It is speedy and can overcome resistance.

Each of the above methods has its advantages and disadvantages. There is no universal strategy for overcoming resistance to change. Hence, an organization that plans to introduce certain changes must be prepared to face resistance from its employees. An organization should also have a planned approach to overcome such resistances.

Possible Benefits of Resistance

It is possible that resistance to organizational change may bring about some benefits as well. For example, if it were not for resistance, bad ideas would be initiated and implemented right along with the good ideas. Organizational resistance causes managers to deploy a strategy to get buy-in to get the good ideas implemented. When employees push back against change it forces managers to (i) justify why change is necessary, (ii) slow down, prioritize, strategize, and create supporting plans, and (iii) involve employees, listen, and gather feedback.

Check Your Progress

1. Define strategic change.
2. List two characteristics of change.
3. What are the individual sources of resistance?

8.4 ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT: OBJECTIVES, EVALUATION AND FOLLOW-UP

Organization development is an intervention strategy in which group processes are used to focus on the entire culture of development of an organization, so that

a planned change would be brought about. It makes use of laboratory training approaches, such as role-playing, management games and sensitivity training. It is important from the perspectives of society, customers and the workers themselves because overall costs are reduced that may result in reduction of wastage of human effort. In addition, the quality of the product improves and a more effective organizational climate is developed. Wendell L. French and Cecil H. Bell Jr., traced the development of OD to the pioneering effort of the National Training Laboratories and Esso Standard Oil Company, who began working on the problem of building better organizations and eventually OD evolved from their effort. There were two main reasons that made OD necessary; they are:

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- The reward structure on the job did not adequately reinforce conventional training, so it often failed to carry over to the job.
- The second cause was the fast pace of change itself, which required organizations to be extremely effective in order to survive and prosper.

OD attempts to develop the whole organization so that it can respond to change more uniformly and capably. OD has its own shortcomings; Beckhard described the dilemma of integrating organizational needs with individual needs.

Meaning of Organization Development (OD)

Organization development is a strategy for organizational improvement. The term 'Organization development' (OD) may be defined as a technique for changing the entire organization.

In the late 1950s and early 1960s, OD emerged out of insights from group dynamics and from the theory and practice of planned changes. Organization development deals in the way people and organizations function and the way to make them work better. OD programmes are long term, planned, sustained efforts. They are based on the knowledge of behavioural science disciplines such as psychology, social psychology, sociology, anthropology, systems theory, organizational behaviour, organization theory and management. The two major goals of OD programmes are:

(i) To better the working of individuals, teams and the entire organization

(ii) To teach organization members how to continuously improve their own functioning

It is a modern approach to the management of change and the development of human resources. It is an organization-wide planned change for improvement, through the use of behavioural science techniques. A healthier decision-making climate is promoted by organizational programmes that leads to improved organizational performance.

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Objectives and Role of OD Programmes

The objectives of OD, as given by Wendell French are as follows:

- To build and enhance inter-personal trust, communication, cooperation and support among all individuals and groups throughout an organization
- To encourage an analytical problem-solving approach with a team spirit
- To enhance the sense of belonging of individuals to an organization so that individual and organizational goals are synchronized
- To extend the process of decision-making to the lowest operational level
- To increase personal responsibility for planning and implementation

Features and Basic Assumptions of OD

The assumptions underlying OD programmes are

1. **Assumptions of dealing with individuals:** The two basic assumptions about individuals in organizations are:
   (a) Most individuals have drives towards personal growth and development. They want to develop their potential and ought therefore to be provided with an environment that is both supportive and challenging. In other words, an individual often wants to grow and develop as a person; this is stimulated and promoted by a supportive and challenging work environment.
   (b) Most people desire to make and are capable of making, a greater contribution to attaining organization goals than most organizational environments permit. The implication of this assumption is that people have expertise. Organizations must remove obstacles and barriers and reward success.
2. **Assumptions of dealing with groups:** These assumptions relate to the importance of work teams:
   (a) The most psychologically relevant reference group for most people is the work group. The work group greatly influences feelings of satisfaction and competence. Therefore, individual goals should be integrated into the group's goals.
   (b) Most people interact cooperatively with at least one small reference group.
   (c) Work groups are the best way to satisfy social and emotional needs at work. Consequently, work groups that are supportive, open and trusting will promote personal growth of an individual.
   (d) Often, individuals repress their feelings about work or colleagues, because they do not want to disbalance their work environment. However, this has an opposite effect as repressed feelings greatly affect a person's problem-solving skills, personal growth, and overall

satisfaction with work. Attitudinal and motivational problems in organizations require interactive and transactional solutions. Such problems have the greatest chance of a constructive solution if all parties in the system alter their mutual relationship. Cooperation is always more effective than conflicts.

3. **Assumptions for designing organizations:** These assumptions relate to the importance of designing organizations. The following points may be considered:
   (a) Traditional hierarchical forms of organizations are obsolete. Therefore, experimenting with new organization structures and new forms of authority is imperative (very important/essential); creating cooperative rather than competitive organizational dynamics is a primary task of an organization.
   (b) An optimistic, developmental set of assumptions about people is likely to reap rewards beneficial to both, an organization and its members. Co- operation is always more beneficial.
   (c) Money or capital is not the most important resource of any organization, but its employees. Employees' work affects productivity and so they must be treated carefully. An organization can achieve higher productivity only when the individual goals are integrated with organizational goals.

Nature and Scope

The main purpose of OD, according to Burton, is 'to bring about a system of organizational renewal that can effectively cope with environmental changes. In doing so, OD strives to maximize organizational effectiveness as well as individual work satisfaction.' Organizational development is the most comprehensive strategy for intervention. It involves all the activities and levels of management in ongoing problems that respond to external and internal sources.

Warner Burke described the following phases of an OD programme:

1. ***Entry:*** Entry represents the initial contact between consultant and client. It also examines the reasons that led to the selection of the consultant. It further determines the problem of the client that the consultant is hired to resolve, the opportunities that the organization is within to cash is on, and the smooth working relationship that should prevail.
2. ***Contracting:*** This refers to establishing mutual expectations; reaching agreements on expenditure of time, money, resources, and energy; and generally clarifying mutual expectations.
3. ***Diagnosis:*** This involves the identification of the slot where the problem arises by way of carrying out data collection and interpreting the same. It may be related to the department, the system, processes, the culture modification or the organizational is returned.

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4. ***Feedback:*** In this phase, the analyzed information is returned to the client system and solution to the problem and its application explored. Thrust between the client and the specialist information is nurtured and extent the problem resolved and opportunities realized is ascertained.
5. ***Planning change:*** In this phase, the client decides what actions are to be taken; what alternatives are available and a critical analysis of the possibilities is conducted. The action plan is devised/selected from among the available and implemented.
6. ***Intervention:*** The action plan that is finally selected is implemented at this stage.
7. ***Evaluation:*** Assessing the results of the OD programme its success, changes in the organization structure, processes, systems, job design, and the total difference made to the organization are assessed. The overall OD programme is evaluated.

Organizational Effectiveness

Since successful OD efforts must have made meaningful changes in the performance and efficiency of the people and the organization, we need to have an evaluation procedure to verify this success; identify needs for new or continuing OD activities, and improve the OD process itself to help make future interventions more successful.

8.4.1 Merits and Demerits of Organizational Development

Workforce mobility and diversity are creating new employee needs along with new expectations about the work culture, and these needs, too, have to be systematically understood and responded to. HR leaders would be enjoined upon to become effective strategic partners in the creation of world class learning culture.

Indian organizations are no exception to these compulsions. Today, they face numerous challenges and complexities, operating, as they do, in a highly volatile political and economic environment. The current environment demands more systems-driven change without undermining the emphasis on people and relationship-oriented changes. Indian economy is increasingly getting integrated with the global economies both structurally and psychologically. Silicon valley of US led to Silicon valley pockets in Bangalore and Hyderabad. The styles of living and the ways of interactions in several organizations are driven by what was happening in the west from day one.

Most Indian organizations have been more oriented towards their people and relationships rather than being driven by the systems. However, with the upcoming global competition, it is extremely important that Indian organizations should also stand up to face this competition in a highly competitive manner. The change has to be in a direction where the organizations need to move away from borrowed technologies to their own technological development and concentrated

efforts on research and development. Additionally, there is a need to also drift away from relationship and people, driven organizations to more competent, skilled and professional employees who are rather system driven.

Thus, there is an emergent need for organizational development in most Indian organizations.

Check Your Progress

4. Who coined the term 'organizational development'?
5. What is the main purpose of OD?

8.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Strategic change is a change in the very mission of the organization. A single mission may have to be changed to multiple missions.
2. Two characteristics of change are the following:
    - Change refers to any alteration that occurs in the overall work environment of an organization. It relates to changes in technology, organizational structure, working processes, work environment, organizational policy and the roles people play.
    - The introduction of change in one part of an organization forces a change in other parts of the organization. If the change is beneficial, people accept it willingly. If it is not desirable, there is great resistance. If it is of no consequence to the people, they may adopt an attitude of indifference.
3. Individuals have the following reasons for resisting change:
    - Simple habits create a lot of resistance. Most people prefer to do their work the way they did it last week rather than learn a new approach.
    - Perhaps the biggest cause of employee resistance to change is uncertainty. In the face of impending change, employees are likely to become anxious and nervous. They worry about their ability to meet new job demands therefore, leading to feeling of job insecurity.
4. The term 'organizational development' was coined by Richard Beckhard in the mid-1950s.
5. The main purpose of OD, according to Burton, is 'to bring about a system of organizational renewal that can effectively cope with environmental changes.

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8.6 SUMMARY

- Change is a phenomenon that pushes us out of our comfort zone. It is for the better or for the worse, depending on how it is viewed. Change has an adjustment timeline that varies from person to person.
- A good leader looks beyond the illusion of 'changelessness' and unearths opportunities for change.
- The management should realize the value of effective employees' cooperation and collaboration, and motivation in the workplace. Before putting into practice a change in an organization, managers should understand that different people hold dissimilar opinions about change.
- There are various levels within the organizational domain where changes can be brought about for operational enhancement of the organization as well as desirable behaviour of members.
- The external environment affects the organizations both directly and indirectly. The organizations have no control over the variables in such an environment. Accordingly, the organizations cannot change the environment but must change themselves to align with the environment.
- Managers need not abandon planned change in the face of resistance. Before recommending specific approaches to overcome resistance, there are three key conclusions that should be kept in mind.
- The term 'Organization Development' (OD) was coined by Richard Beckhard in the mid 1950s, as a response to the need for integrating organizational needs with individual needs.
- Organization development is an intervention strategy in which group processes are used to focus on the entire culture of development of an organization, so that a planned change would be brought about.
- According to Wendell L. French and Cecil H. Bell, Jr., 'Organization Development is a systematic process for applying behavioural science principles and practices in organizations to increase individual and organizational effectiveness.'
- The main purpose of OD, according to Burton, is 'to bring about a system of organizational renewal that can effectively cope with environmental changes. In doing so, OD strives to maximize organizational effectiveness as well as individual work satisfaction.'

8.7 KEY WORDS

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- **Change:** It is defined as the act or process of doing something different.
- **Stakeholder:** It is a party that has an interest in a business enterprise and can either affect or be affected by the business.
- **Resistance:** It means the refusal to accept or comply with something.

8.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. Briefly mention the levels of change.
2. What are the causes of change?
3. What are the objectives of organizational development?

Long Answer Questions

1. Evaluate the importance of organizational change.
2. Discuss the process of change.
3. What are the organizational sources of resistance to change? Discuss.
4. Explain the methods applied for overcoming resistance to change.

8.9 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 9 ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND CLIMATE

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Structure

9.0 INTRODUCTION

Organizational culture is a system of shared beliefs and attitudes that develop within an organization and guides the behaviour of its members. It is also known as corporate culture, and has a major impact on the performance of organizations and especially on the quality of work life experienced by the employees at all levels of the organizational hierarchy. The corporate culture consists of the norms, values and unwritten rules of conduct of an organization as well as management styles, priorities, beliefs and interpersonal behaviours that prevail. Together they create a climate that influences how well people communicate, plan and make decisions. Strong corporate values let people know what is expected of them. There are clear guidelines as to how employees are to behave generally within the organization and their expected code of conduct outside the organization. Also, if the employees understand the basic philosophy of the organization, then they are more likely to make decisions that will support these standards set by the organization and reinforce corporate values.

9.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Define organizational culture
- Evaluate the significance of organizational culture
- Discuss the creation and maintenance of culture
- Examine the theories of organizational culture
- State the issues faced with reference to organizational culture

9.2 TYPES AND DETERMINANTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

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While culture has been a continuous development of values and attitudes over many generations, at least the organizational culture can be partially traced back to the values held by the founders of the organization. Such founders are usually dynamic personalities with strong values and a clear vision as to where they want to take their organizations. These founders usually selected their associates and their employees who had a similar value system so that these values became an integral part of the organization.

Secondly, the organizational culture is influenced by the external environment and the interaction between the organization and the external environment. For example, one organization may create a niche for itself for extremely high quality defect-free product as a result of competitive forces and customer demand, while another organization may opt for moderate quality but lower prices. The work cultures at these two types of organizations would accordingly differ and would be influenced by external forces such as customer demand.

Thirdly, work culture is also a function of the nature of the work and mission and the goals of the organization. For example, in a professional, research oriented small organization, the workers may be more informal at all hierarchical levels of the organization, the dress code may not be strictly observed and the employees may be encouraged to be independent and innovative. In contrast, other organizations may have a strictly enforced formal classical hierarchical structure with clearly established channels of communications and strict adherence to work rules. Accordingly, the organizational culture of these two types of organizations would be different.

Much has been written and talked about Japanese management styles. Almost invariably, the economic success of Japanese society is associated with Japanese culture. The cultural aspect of organizational performance came into focus with Theory Z, proposed by William Ouchi in 1981. Even though Theory Z draws heavily on Japanese approach to management, it is more a combination of the current American as well as Japanese style of managing an organization. Basically, Ouchi's approach to management calls for:

- Consensus decision-making.
- Worker participation in all phases of organizational operations.
- Genuine concern for the overall well-being of employees.
- Life time job security.

The importance of strong culture as a driving force for organizational success was emphasised by Peters and Waterman in their well received book, *In Search of Excellence*. They observed:

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Without exception, the dominance and coherence of culture proved to be an essential quality of the excellent companies. Moreover, the stronger the culture and the more it was directed towards the marketplace, the less need was there for policy manuals, organization charts and detailed procedures and rules. In these companies, people, way down the line know what they are supposed to do in most situations because the handful of guiding values is crystal clear.

Some of the cultural differences in a typical American organization as compared to a typical Japanese organization can be seen in the following comparison in various areas and aspects of organizational operations and performance.

Organizational Climate

The process of quantifying culture in an organization is called organizational climate. This is also referred as corporate culture. According to this process, an employee's behaviour is influenced by a set of guidelines laid down by the organization.

There are different approaches to define organizational climate, which are based on how to define climate and how to measure it effectively on different stages. These two approaches are as follows:

- Cognitive Schema
- Shared perception

The cognitive schema approach regards climate as an individual perception and as the work of environment. Therefore, according to this perspective climate assessments should be covered individually. The shared perception approach on the other hand gives importance to other perceptions vis-à-vis climate and has also been defined as the shared perception of the way things are around here. It is to be noted that there are major overlaps in both the approaches.

- **Cognitive schema approach:** Schemas are known to be mental structures that perceive the world. They are said to be organized in memory of associative network in which schemes of similar nature are clubbed together. Thus, when a particular schema is activated, the relating schemes will get activated too. Relative schemes become more accessible in the associative network. If the schema is more accessible it can be used directly and quickly to a particular situation. When related schemas are activated they tend to influence social behaviour. However, it is also important to know that a person may or may not be aware when a schema is activated.

  Accessibility of schema is increased by the process of salience and priming. Salience can be defined as the degree to which one social object stands out in respect to other social objects in a given situation. This means that the higher the salience of a social object, more accessibility will be there for the related schemas whereas priming refers to experiences prior to a situation that make a schema more accessible.

- **Shared perception approach:** This approach discusses the variables which influence an organization's ability to mobilize their employees in order to get

their business targets met and also to maximize employee performance. Under this model, the staff of an organization is surveyed to identify and measure aspects of a workplace which effect the quality of work life.

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Creation and Maintenance of Culture

The traditions and way of life of the employees create culture in an organization. The organizational culture is known by its employees' behaviour and attitudes. The early traditions are the basis of culture in an organization. The vision and functions of an organisation are the creators of culture. Accumulated traditions and methods of functions are culture. The ideology and customs of organisational functions are organisational culture. An organisation develops progressive ideas and technological development for forming a good culture in an organisation. The mission and vision of the founder members of an organisation are the basis for creating the organisational culture. Hard work, competitive spirit and a disciplined way of life of the founders have created a disciplined organisational culture for improving the performance. The vision of Ratan Ji Tata and Ghanshyam Das Birla has created the Tata culture and Birla culture respectively in the Tata Group and the Birla Group. They are known by their organisational culture.

Sustaining Culture

Sustaining and maintaining culture is essential for the organisation to make it a permanent source of energy. The experience gained by predecessors must be continued by the subsequent successors. An improvement for the better must be introduced into the existing culture. Reinforcement of learning, performance evaluation criteria, reward system, promotion procedures, etc. should be continued as it existed in the vision of the founders. Maintaining the culture does not mean that the organisations should adhere to a cultural paradox. The changing environment is absorbed in the dynamic culture of an organisation. The top management, selection, training-- and development programme and socialisation are the important methods of sustaining culture.

Top management: The attitudes of the top management should continue to guide the organisational functions. The culture is maintained by adhering to old values and developmental attitudes. They have certain norms and values which flow in the minds of sub-ordinates. The culture sponsored by the top management continues in the employees of an organisation. The latter follows the former. The top management decides and subordinates work. The dress recommended, the job designs suggested and other factors are taken into account for keeping culture alive. Tata Groups perpetuate a risk-taking, bold and innovative culture. HMT is dedicated to a culture of quality and innovative vision as the top management are practicing it themselves.

Selection: Culture is maintained by a proper selection policy. People who are qualified and experienced must be appointed ignoring those persons who want an entry on a pull-push basis. If needed persons are appointed, the organisation can maintain work culture. On the contrary, if people are appointed based on political

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support, they are bound to destroy the existing work culture. The vision, mission and policy of a sound organisation must not be bypassed while selecting the people for work performance. In India, the public sector could not maintain the real character of the public sector because of a defective selection policy. But, those public enterprises which have been given autonomy and have no interference from politicians have worked satisfactorily. Indian Oil, Oil and Natural Gas Commission, Life Insurance Corporation of India and Steel Authority of India have been successful in maintaining some of the policies of a sound public sector. People who do not have the core values of an organisation must not be appointed because they will destroy the very structural value of the organisation.

Training and development programme: After selection and placement, an organisation should adopt a training and development programme based on the values of the organisation. Employees learn the values of the organisation. Training and development programmes are channelised for enhancing the culture of an organisation. Video films, practicing lectures and problem solutions are the important components of a value sustaining process. The instructor should identify the problems of learners so that they can be directed towards the cultural values of the organisation. The traits and qualities of the employees are used for instrumenting the employees on the values of the organisation.

Socialisation: The employees are indoctrinated in the organisation's culture through the adaptation process which is called socialisation. New employees are put in the culture of an organisation through on the job and sensitive training. An intensive training programme is instituted to make the new employees accustomed with the values of the organisation which includes performing all the activities from the early morning to sleeping time. The whole day is systematically scheduled to make the employees learn all the cultures of an organisation. The organisational culture is maintained not only in the form of work functions but also in dining, dressing and developmental activities. New graduates can easily learn all the cultural values of an organisation through the intensive training programme.

Employees prove their commitment with the cultural values of the organisation after getting the intensive training programme. The newly appointed employees remain in good standing. They learn the pivotal role or basic values of an organisation. People who fail to learn the basic values of an organisation after training are termed as 'non-conformists'. They become rebels if they have values contrary to the organisational values. These employees are further brought to a steep socialisation process, i.e. prearrival stage, encounter stage and metamorphosis stage.

Prearrival stage: The values, attitudes and personalities of newly appointed employees are assessed for driving them towards the organisational culture. Their weaknesses are revealed to paste them with the organisational values. Modification and smoothening of their existing values are made by the management towards the culture of an organisation. Employees might have knowledge of socialisation of

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the business functions. It is revealed how their socialisation has not moved towards the organisational values. The diagnosis reveals the possibilities of a complete socialisation of the organisational culture. Their firmness, rigidity, unfaithfulness and other anti-attitudes are smoothened to make their uses in different functions of required values. Psychologists and behaviourists are invited to smoothen their individual values towards the organisational values.

Encounter stage: The employees, after entering into business functions, find the activities against their attitude and expectations. The expectations of the employees may or may not be equal to the reality of the business policy, procedures and fellow workers' attitudes. If expectations are not very far from the reality in the organisation, they reinforce the values of the organisation. A smoothening process is used in this case. When expectations are far from the reality, the employees are required to replace their existing style with the organisational policy. The employees should try to adopt themselves to the values of the organisational culture. If they fail to adopt, they are put in adverse conditions. They should not be permitted to destroy the existing culture of the organisation. They are forced to resign if they do not perform according to the norms and values of the organisation after their intensive training programme.

Metamorphosis stage: Employees are required to change their values which are contrary to those of the organisation. The socialisation process is reintroduced for emphasising divestiture, stripping away and replacing their own values. Perception, learning and personality development programmes are used to change the values of the employees to bring them on par with those of the organisation. The group values and norms are made sacred objectives which should be achieved by individuals. Role models are used to train and encourage the employees. Monitoring and self-exercise programmes are held to make people organisation-minded. A serial socialisation is needed for changing the employees' values for organisational values.

9.3 CHANGING ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Although international business, to some degree, has existed for centuries, the second half of the last century was most influential in bringing the world closer to itself. The world, since 1950s has entered an era of unprecedented global economic activity, including worldwide production, distribution and global strategic alliances. More recently, in the last decade of the last century, India and China have opened up for entry of multinational companies. Some other closed markets under communism and social economies, such as one time Soviet Union and Eastern Europe have joined the international economic arena. Some multinational companies such as IBM, GE, BP and Siemens do business in more than 50 countries. According to Mitroft, 'For all practical purposes all business today is global. Firms, industries and whole societies that clearly understand the new rules of doing business in a world economy will prosper; those that do not will perish'.

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Culture defines behaviour of people and organizations and international managers are increasingly recognizing the influence of national culture on organizational functioning. They are being trained in acquiring the skills of cross-cultural management and they study the behaviour of people in organizational settings around the world. They seek to understand and improve the interaction with co-workers, clients, suppliers and alliance partners from different countries and cultures. Often multilingual, the global manager thinks with a world view and develops his strategy on the basis of diverse beliefs, behaviour and practices of people of different countries. He adopts well to different business environments and solves problems quickly relative to the environment he is in. He understands and respects different government and political systems and he communicates in the cultural context of a given class of people. Experienced international managers understand the need for 'global mindset' of cultural adaptability, flexibility, patience and respect.

9.4 IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND CULTURE

Culture to an organization is an intangible force, with far reaching consequences. It plays several important roles in organizations. Different functions performed by culture are discussed below.

Culture Gives a Sense of Identity to Its Members

An organization's culture provides a sense of identity to its members. The more clearly an organization's shared perception and values are defined, the more strongly people can associate themselves with their organization's mission and feel a vital part of it.

Culture Helps to Generate Commitment Among Employees

The second important function of culture is generating commitment to the organization's mission. Sometimes it is difficult for people to go beyond thinking of their own interest: How will this affect me? However, when there is a strong, overarching culture, people feel that they are part of that larger, well-defined whole and involved in the entire organization's work. Not just focussed on any one individual's interest, culture reminds people of what their organization is all about.

Culture Serves to Clarify and Reinforce Standards of Behaviour

A third important function of culture is that it serves to clarify and reinforce standards of behaviour. While it is essential for newcomers, it is also beneficial for veterans. In essence, culture guides employees' words and deeds, making it clear what they should do or say in a given situation. In this sense, it provides stability to behaviour, both with respect to what an individual might do at different times and what different individuals may do at the same time. For example, in a company with a culture that

strongly supports customer satisfaction, employees will have clear guidance as to how they are expected to behave; doing whatever it takes to please the customer. By serving these important roles, it is clear that culture is an important force influencing behaviour in organizations.

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Theories

No single framework for describing the values in organizational culture has emerged; however, several frameworks have been suggested. Although these frameworks were developed in the 1980s, their ideas about organizational culture are influential even today. Some of the "excellent" companies that they described are less excellent now, but the concepts are still used in companies all over the world. Managers should evaluate the various parts of the frameworks described and use the parts that fit the strategic and cultural values for their own organization.

1. The Ouchi Framework

One of the first researchers to focus explicitly on analysing the culture of a limited group of firms was William G. Ouchi (1981). Ouchi analysed the organizational culture of three groups of firms, which he characterized as (1) typical US firms, (2) typical Japanese firms, and (3) type Z US firms.

Based on his analysis, Ouchi developed a list of seven points on which these three types of firms can be compared. He argued that the cultures of typical Japanese firms and US type Z firms are very different from those of typical US firms and that these differences explain the success of many Japanese firms and US type Z firms and the difficulties faced by typical US firms. The seven points of comparison developed by Ouchi are as follows:

(i) Commitment to employees

According to Ouchi, typical Japanese and Type Z US firms share the cultural value of trying to retain employees. Thus, both types of firms layoff employees only as a last resort. In Japan, the value of "keeping employees on" often takes the form of lifetime employment. This cultural value is manifested in a commitment of what Ouchi called "long-term employment."

Ouchi suggested that typical US firms do not have the same cultural commitment to employees as Japanese firms and US type Z firms do. In reality, American workers and managers often spend their entire careers in a relatively small number of companies. Still there is a cultural expectation that if there is a serious downtown in a firm's fortune, change of ownership, or a merger, workers and managers will be let go.

(ii) Evaluation

Ouchi observed that in Japanese and type Z US companies, appropriate evaluation of workers and managers is thought to take a very long time—up to 10 years—and requires the use of qualitative as well as quantitative information about performance. For this reason, promotion in their firms is relatively slow, and

promotion decisions are made only after interviews with many people who have had contacts with the person being evaluated.

(iii) Careers

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Ouchi next observed that the careers most valued in Japanese and Type Z US firms span multiple functions. In Japan, this value had led to very broad career paths, which may result in employees gaining experience in six or seven distinct business functions. The career paths in type Z US firms are somewhat narrower.

However, the career path valued in typical US firms is considerably narrower. Ouchi's research indicated that most US managers perform only one or two different functions in their careers. This narrow career path reflects the value of specialization that is part of so many US firms.

(iv) Control

All organizations must exert some level of control to achieve coordinated action. Thus, it is not surprising that firms in the US and Japan have developed cultural values related to organizational control on how to manage it. Most Japanese and type Z US firms assume that control is exercised through implicit, informal mechanisms. One of the most powerful of these mechanisms is the organizational culture.

In contrast, typical US firms expect guidance to come through explicit directions in the form of job descriptions, delineation of authority, and various rules and procedures, rather than informal and implicit cultural values.

(v) Decision-making

Japanese and type Z US firms have a strong cultural expectation that decision making occurs in groups and is based on the principles of full information sharing and consensus. In most typical US firms, individual decision making is considered appropriate.

(vi) Responsibility

Here, the parallels between Japanese firms and type Z US firms break down. Ouchi showed that in Japan strong cultural norms support collective responsibility, that is, the group as a whole, rather than a single person, is held responsible for decisions made by the group. However, in type Z US firms and typical US firms, individuals are expected to take responsibility for decisions.

(vii) Concern for people

In Japanese firms and type Z firms, the cultural value that dominates is a holistic concern for workers and managers. Holistic concern extends beyond concern for a person simply as a worker or a manager to concern about that person's home life, hobbies, personal beliefs, hopes, fears, and aspirations. In typical US firms, the concern for people is a narrow one that focuses on the workplace. A culture that emphasizes a strong concern for people, rather than the one that describes a work task orientation can decrease worker turnover (Powell and Mainiero 1993).

Theory Z and performance

Ouchi argued that the cultures of Japanese and type Z firms help them outperform typical US firms. Toyota imported the management style and culture that succeeded in Japan into its manufacturing facilities in North America. Toyota's success has often been attributed to the ability of Japanese and type Z firms to systematically invest in their employees and operations over long periods, resulting in steady and significant improvement in long-term performance.

2. The Peters and Waterman Approach

Tom Peters and Robert Waterman (1982) in their best seller "In search of Excellence" focused even more explicitly than Ouchi on the relationship between organizational culture and performance. Peters and Waterman chose a sample of highly successful US firms and sought to describe the management practices that led to their success. Their analysis rapidly turned to the cultural values that led to successful management practices. Some of the excellent values practiced in the sample firms are as follows:

(i) Bias for action

According to Peters and Waterman, successful firms have a bias for action. Managers in these firms are expected to make decisions even if all the facts are not in. They argued that for many important decisions, all the facts will never be in. Delaying decision making in these situations is the same as never making decisions. Meanwhile, other firms probably will have captured whatever business initiatives that existed. On average, according to these authors, organizations with cultural values that include a bias for action outperform firms without such values.

(ii) Stay close to the customer

Peters and Waterman believe that firms which value customers over anything else outperform firms without this value. The customer is a source of information about current products, a source of ideas about future products, and responsible for the firm's current and future financial performance. Focusing on the customer, meeting the customer's needs, and pampering the customer when necessary lead to superior performance.

(iii) Autonomy and entrepreneurship

Peters and Waterman maintained that successful firms fight the lack of innovation and the bureaucracy usually associated with large size. They do this by breaking the company into smaller, more manageable pieces and then encouraging independent, innovative activities within smaller business segments. Stories often exist in these organizations about the junior engineer, who takes a risk and influences major product decisions, or of the junior manager, who implements a new and highly successful marketing plan because he is dissatisfied with the current plan.

(iv) Productivity through people

Peters and Waterman believe that successful firms recognize that their most important assets are their people—both workers and managers—and that the

organization's purpose is to let its people flourish. It is a basic value of the organizational culture—a belief that treating people with respect and dignity is not only appropriate but also essential to success.

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(v) Hands-on management

They also noted that the firms they studied insisted that senior managers stay in touch with the firm's essential business. It is an expectation, reflecting deeply embedded cultural norms that managers should not manage from behind the closed door of their offices but by "wandering around" the plant, the design facility, the research and development department, and so on.

(vi) Stick to the knitting

Another cultural value characteristic of excellent firms is their reluctance to engage in business outside their areas of expertise. These firms reject the concept of diversification, the practice of buying and operating businesses in unrelated industries. This notion is currently referred to as relying on the "core competencies," or what the company does best.

(vii) Simple form, lean staff

According to Peters and Waterman, successful firms tend to have few administrative layers and relatively small corporate staff group. In companies that are managed excellently, importance is measured not only by the number of people who report to the manager but also by the manager's impact on the organization's performance. The cultural values in these firms tell managers that the performance of the staff is more important than their number.

(viii) Simultaneously loose and tight organization

The final attribute of organizational culture identified by Peter and Watermen appears contradictory. The firms are tightly organized because all their members understand and believe in the firm's values. This common cultural bond is the strong glue that holds the firms together. At the same time, however, the firms are loosely organized because they tend to have less administrative overheads, fewer staff members, and fewer rules and regulations. The result is increased innovation and risk taking and faster response time.

3. The Udai Pareek Approach

According to Pareek (2002), there are eight values that govern the culture of an organization. These eight values together are responsible for making the culture of an organization strong or weak. These are as follows:

(i) Openness

As the term implies openness refers to free sharing of thoughts, ideas, and feelings with each other in an organization. The open environment of the organization results in a culture where employees have no reservation or negative hidden feelings against each other. In situations of disagreements they are able to come out openly and share their concerns with each other. Openness also deals with doing away with

the physical boundaries and erected walls in the organizations. Openness has to be practiced both in terms of giving as well as receiving information at all levels in the organization.

(ii) Confrontation

With openness comes the ability to face the situation as it comes to us rather than move away from it. In cases where there is willingness to face the problem and solve it, many interpersonal differences are resolved and individuals come forward with their ideas and solutions.

(iii) Trust

The surety with which people can share their confidential information with each other without the fear of it being known all over the organization reflects the level of trust in the organization. In organizations where trust is high among employees, there is better problem solving and less stress.

(iv) Authenticity

This refers to the equivalence that members of an organization have between their words and deeds. If people do what they say and feel, it leads to high level of openness and trust in organizations.

(v) Proactivity

Proactive organizations are ready to face any eventuality and are prepared for adversaries too. Proactive individuals are more calm and relaxed in their behaviour towards others. With proactivity, there is a possibility of thinking and planning ahead and being prepared to encounter situations or individuals.

(vi) Autonomy

It involves giving enough space to other individuals in the organization as you would seek for yourself. A person with knowledge and competence should be given freedom to take the decisions for the department or the organization. This promotes a sense of achievement and self-confidence among employees thereby leading to mutual respect.

(vii) Collaboration

Organizations consist of individuals who are expected to work together in a group and this sense of togetherness can only be generated by the top management in organizations. People should be forced to learn to work together to develop a sense of team spirit. It will result in openness, trust among members, sharing, and a sense of belongingness and commitment to the organization.

(viii) Experimentation

In this age of scarce resources, and fast change, any organization which is not willing to try out new and better ways of working is likely to perish fast. Individuals as well as organizations can sustain themselves only if they are able to experiment with the available resources and identify and develop better approaches to deal

with the problems. There has to be out of the box thinking in which nothing that is obsolete is likely to be accepted.

Issues in Organizational Culture

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The following are some of the issues in organizational culture:

- Maintaining the organizational culture. This involves employee engagement at all times
- Reinforcing organizational culture through different actions so that the employees do not forget that the ideas of the organizational are not for a one time show or biased towards one group etc.
- Many times the employees might get the feeling that the organizational culture is to be maintained overall and that they are not important part of it. So, it is crucial that the managers ensure that every employee understands that he/ she is important in the process.
- Employees rely on their instincts which might or might not be based on evidence or are actually opposing to the organization. It is important that the organizational culture is clearly understood and maintained.
- The organization culture might become outdated or regressive if they are not adaptive to the change in the environment.
- The different departments in the organization might become a hindrance to organizational culture if the employees create invisible walls between themselves.

Check Your Progress

1. Name the two schemes used to define and measure of organizational climate.
2. List the eight values that govern the organizational culture as per the Udai Pareek approach.

9.5 DETERMINANTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

At the very onset of this topic, it is useful to distinguish between determinants and dimensions of organizational climate (OC). Determinants are the causes, while dimensions are the components of OC. You may say, determinants are those which influence whereas dimensions are those which are influenced.

Although OC refers to the internal environment of an organization, the nature of OC is determined by a variety of internal and external factors. One of the basic premises of organizational behaviour is that outside environmental forces influence

events within organizations. After acknowledging the dynamics of internal as well as external factors in this section, we will consider in greater detail the following seven internal factors. You will find these factors as determinants of OC in the following order:

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1. Economic Condition
2. Leadership Style
3. Organizational Policies
4. Managerial Values
5. Organizational Structure
6. Characteristics of Members
7. Organizational Size

Let's discuss these factors in detail.

1. Economic Condition

Several dimensions of OC are influenced by an organization's position on the economic cycle. The economic condition of any organization influences whether its budget should be 'tight' or 'loose'. In times of prosperity-when budgets are more loose than tight-the organization tends to be more adventuresome. On the other hand, tight budget would lead to an air of caution and conservatism within an organization. Few managers are willing to suggest new programmes (probably deserving merit) when the order from above is to exercise tight control over expenses. So, dimensions of OC like 'Risk-taking', 'Control', 'Progressiveness and Development' etc. are directly influenced by economic conditions.

2. Leadership Style

The leadership style prevailing in an organization has a profound influence in determining several dimensions of OC. The influence is so pervasive that you may often wonder whether OC is a product of the philosophy and practices of prominent persons in an organization.

Consider, for example, the results of an experimental study where three organizations were 'created' by simulation. All these three Organizations-A, B and C-were identical in terms of nature of business, size of the organization, characteristics of employees, and initial economic condition. The major difference among these three organizations was the 'leadership style'. Organization A was characterised by authoritarian style with high power motivation. Organization B was characterised by democratic style with affiliation motivation. Organization C was characterised by goal directed style with achievement motivation.

3. Organizational Policies

Specific organizational policies can influence a specific dimension of OC to quite an extent. For example, if the company policy states that layoffs will be used only as a last resort to cope with business downturn, then it would, in general, foster an internal environment that is supportive and humanistic.

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Similarly, if you are working in a company where it is agreed that the first beneficiaries, of increased profit would be the employees of that organization and shareholders would get second priority, then the OC will be characterised by High Reward Orientation and probably by High Progressiveness and Development.

4. Managerial Values

The values held by executives have a strong influence on OC because values lead to actions and shape decisions. Values add to perceptions of the organization as impersonal, paternalistic, formal, informal, hostile or friendly.

5. Organizational Structure

The design or structure of an organization affects the perception of its internal environment. For example, a bureaucratic structure has an OC much different from a System 4 organization. What is a System 4 organization? According to Rensis Likert, all organizations can be classified into four major groups, depending upon the way basic organizational processes are conducted. These major groupings are as follows:

System 1 - Exploitative Authoritative

System 2 - Benevolent Authoritative

System 3 - Consultative

System 4 - Participative

How does one know whether an organization should be categorised as System 1 or 2 or 3 or 4? It depends on the way following processes are perceived and rated in an organization:

- Leadership process
- Motivation process
- Communication process
- Decision-making process
- Goal-setting process
- Control process

Employees of an organization rate these processes on a rating scale; asking questions like the following:

- How much confidence is shown in subordinates?
- Where is responsibility felt for achieving organization goals?
- How well superiors know problems faced by subordinates?
- How much covert resistance to goals is present?
- At what levels are decisions formally made?
- Is there an informal organization resisting the formal one?

Based on the answers to these questions, an organization can be classified as system 1 or 2 or 3 or 4. A bureaucratic structure is likely to be rated as System 2 or System 3. A System 4 organization will have a distinct OC where the main theme would be strong involvement and self-control of all organization members at all levels in all basic organizational processes

6. Characteristics of Members

Personal characteristics of the members of an organization also affect the climate prevailing in the organization. For example an organization with well educated, ambitious and younger employees is likely to have a different OC than an organization with less educated, and less upwardly mobile, older employees. The former might inculcate an environment of competitiveness, calculated risk-taking, frankness of opinions, etc.

7. Organizational Size

In a small sized organization it is much easier to foster a climate for creativity and innovation or to establish a participative kind of management with greater stress on horizontal distribution of responsibilities. On the other hand, in a large organization it is easier to have a more authoritative kind of management with stress on vertical distribution of responsibilities. This in turn leads to distinct environments as has been explained with the help of the concept of System 4 organization.

We have now studied seven basic determinants of OC. The list is not exhaustive but these are the basic internal factors determining the internal environment of an organization.

Note that OC is not influenced by factors existing within the organization only. Societal forces help shape OC as well. To understand societal influences on OC, let us consider an example in relation to the changing profile of existing and future employees. You may have noticed at least two changes which are taking place in our society. First, educational level of employees of all categories is rising. Second, societal values toward recreational and leisure activities are becoming stronger. The effect of the first change is in the expectations of employees. People want more satisfying and fulfilling work which should match their qualifications and abilities. The impact of the second change is that the passion for non-work is increasing: people feel less passionate about job performance. So, while one change is pushing towards increased professionalism, the other change is pulling towards leisure-orientation. Against these backdrops of societal forces influencing the profiles of the employees, the content of the job and the organization processes determine the OC. To sum up, OC is determined by a variety of internal and external factors where internal factors are specific to the organization while external factors refer to a number of societal forces.

Measuring Organizational Climate

A good organizational climate is the basis for successful operation of any organization. It substantially contributes to the well-being of the employees, affects their feeling of belonging and work motivation. It is good to know what the organizational climate is within the company and its individual units. The most basic way of measuring the organizational climate is through a questionnaire. It is important to recognize that every firm is unique and formulate the questionnaire according to the specifics. But measuring the climate is only the first step. Then we need to focus on the analysis and prepare changes based on the results.

Check Your Progress

3. List the determinants of organizational climate.
4. How does economic condition affect organizational climate?

9.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The two schemes used to define and measure of organizational climate are the following:
   - Cognitive schema approach
   - Shared perception approach
2. The eight values that govern the organizational culture as per the Udai Pareek approach are the following:
   - Confrontation
   - Trust
   - Authenticity
   - Proactivity
   - Autonomy
   - Collaboration
   - Experimentation
3. The determinants of OC are as follows:
   - Economic Condition
   - Leadership Style
   - Organizational Policies
   - Managerial Values
   - Organizational Structure

- Characteristics of Members
- Organizational Size

4. Several dimensions of OC are influenced by an organization's position on the economic cycle. The economic condition of any organization influences whether its budget should be 'tight' or 'loose'. In times of prosperity-when budgets are more loose than tight-the organization tends to be more adventuresome. On the other hand, tight budget would lead to an air of caution and conservatism within an organization.

9.7 SUMMARY

- Organizational culture is a system of shared beliefs and attitudes that develop within an organization and guides the behaviour of its members. It is also known as corporate culture, and has a major impact on the performance of organizations and especially on the quality of work life experienced by the employees at all levels of the organizational hierarchy.
- While culture has been a continuous development of values and attitudes over many generations, at least the organizational culture can be partially traced back to the values held by the founders of the organization.
- The process of quantifying culture in an organization is called organizational climate. This is also referred as corporate culture. According to this process, an employee's behaviour is influenced by a set of guidelines laid down by the organization.
- The traditions and way of life of the employees create culture in an organization. The organizational culture is known by its employees' behavior and attitudes. The early traditions are the basis of culture in an organization.
- Sustaining and maintaining culture is essential for the organization to make it a permanent source of energy. The experience gained by predecessors must be continued by the subsequent successors.
- Although international business, to some degree, has existed for centuries, the second half of the last century was most influential in bringing the world closer to itself.
- Culture to an organization is an intangible force, with far reaching consequences. It plays several important roles in organizations.
- No single framework for describing the values in organizational culture has emerged; however, several frameworks have been suggested. Although these frameworks were developed in the 1980s, their ideas about organizational culture are influential even today.
- According to Ouchi, typical Japanese and Type Z US firms share the cultural value of trying to retain employees.

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- Business ethics is the application of ethical values to business behaviours. It applies to the code of conduct of an organization and, therefore, relates to its culture.
- Although OC refers to the internal environment of an organization, the nature of OC is determined by a variety of internal and external factors.
- A good organizational climate is the basis for successful operation of any organization. It substantially contributes to the well-being of the employees, affects their feeling of belonging and work motivation.

9.8 KEY WORDS

- **Organizational culture:** It is a system of shared beliefs and attitudes that develop within an organization and guides the behaviour of its members.
- **Organizational climate:** The process of quantifying culture in an organization is called organizational climate.

9.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. Write a short note on the significance of organizational culture.
2. How has the organizational culture responded to the changing global scenario?
3. What are the issues faced in organizational culture?
4. What are the determinants of organizational climate?

Long Answer Questions

1. 'Sustaining and maintaining culture is essential for the organization to make it a permanent source of energy.' Explain the statement.
2. Discuss the Ouchi Framework developed by William Ouchi with reference to organizational culture.
3. Explain the theories of organizational culture.

9.10 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 10 ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICTS

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Structure

10.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about organizational culture and climate. In this unit, we will discuss organizational conflict. Organizational conflict refers to a state of discord caused by the actual or perceived opposition if needs, values and interests between people working together. Sometimes conflict within an organization is necessary for the organization to thrive. The unit will discuss the definition, stages and causes of conflict. It will also discuss the measures to stimulate conflict.

10.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Define conflict
- Describe the causes of conflict
- Examine the measures to stimulate conflict

10.2 DEFINITION, STAGES AND CAUSES OF CONFLICT

The concept of conflict, being an outcome of behaviours, is an integral part of human life. Wherever there is interaction, there is conflict. Conflict can be defined

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in many ways and can be considered as an expression of hostility, negative attitudes, antagonism, aggression, rivalry and misunderstanding. It is also associated with situations that involve contradictory or irreconcilable interests between two opposing groups. It can be defined as a disagreement between two or more individuals or groups, with each individual or group trying to gain acceptance of its view or objectives over others.

Conflict must be distinguished from competition, even though sometimes intense competition leads to conflict. Competition is directed towards obtaining a goal and one group does not interfere with the efforts of another group while conflict is directed against another group and actions are taken to frustrate the other group's actions towards goal achievement.

Constructive and Destructive Conflict

Since conflict has both positive and negative connotations and consequences, it must be looked into and managed for useful purposes. The management must survey the situation to decide whether to stimulate conflict or to resolve it. Thomas and Schmidt have reported that managers spend up to twenty per cent of their time in dealing with conflict situations. Hence, it is very important that managers understand the type of conflict that they have to deal with so that they can devise some standardised techniques in dealing with common characteristics of conflicts in each type of category. There are five basic types of conflicts. These are:

Conflict within the individual: The conflict within the individual is usually value related, where the role playing expected of the individual does not conform with the values and beliefs held by the individual. For example, a secretary may have to lie on instructions that her boss is not in the office to avoid an unwanted visitor or an unwanted telephone call. This may cause a conflict within the mind of the secretary who may have developed an ethic of telling the truth. Similarly, many Indians who are vegetarians and visit America and find it very hard to remain vegetarians, may question the necessity of the vegetarian philosophy, thus causing a conflict in their minds.

In addition to these value conflicts, a person may have a role conflict. For example, a telephone operator may be advised and required to be polite to the customers by her supervisor who may also complain that she is spending too much time with her customers. This would cause a role conflict in her mind. Similarly, a policeman may be invited to his brother's wedding where he may find that some guests are using drugs which is against the law. It may cause conflict in his mind as to which role he should play–of a brother or of a policeman. Conflict within an individual can also arise when a person has to choose between two equally desirable alternatives or between two equally undesirable goals.

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Interpersonal conflict: Interpersonal conflict involves conflict between two or more individuals and is probably the most common and most recognised conflict. This may involve conflict between two managers who are competing for limited capital and manpower resources. For example, interpersonal conflicts can develop when there are three equally deserving professors and they are all up for promotion, but only one of them can be promoted because of budget and positional constraints. This conflict can become further acute when the scarce resources cannot be shared and must be obtained.

Another type of interpersonal conflict can relate to disagreements over goals and objectives of the organization. For example, some members of a board of a school may want to offer courses in sex education while others may find this proposal morally offensive thus causing conflict. Similarly, a college or a university may have a policy of quality education so that only top quality students are admitted while some members of the organizational board may propose 'open admissions' policy where all high schools graduates should be considered for admission. Such a situation can cause conflict among members of the governing board. In addition to conflicts over the nature and substance of goals and objectives, they can also arise over the means to reach these goals. For example, two marketing managers may argue as to which promotional methods would result in higher sales. These conflicts become highlighted when they are based upon opinions rather than facts. Facts are generally indisputable resulting in agreements. Opinions are highly personal and subjective and may provide for criticism and disagreements.

These conflicts are often the results of personality clashes. People with widely differing characteristics and attitudes are bound to have views and aims that are inconsistent with the views and aims of others.

Conflict between the individual and the group: As we have discussed before, all formal groups as well as informal groups have established certain norms of behaviour and operational standards that all members are expected to adhere to. The individual may want to remain within the group for social needs but may disagree with the group methods. For example, in some restaurants, all tips are shared by all the waiters and waitresses. Some particular waitress who may be overly polite and efficient may feel that she deserves more, thus causing a conflict within the group. Similarly, if a group is going on strike for some reason, some members may not agree with these reasons or simply may not be able to afford to go on strike, thus causing conflict with the group.

This conflict may also be between the manager and a group of subordinates or between the leader and the followers. A manager may take a disciplinary action against a member of the group, causing conflict that may result in reduced productivity. 'Mutiny on the Bounty' is a classic example of rebellion of the crew

of the ship against the leader, based upon the treatment the crew received. The conflict among the armed forces is taken so seriously that the army must obey their commander even if the command is wrong and in conflict with what others believe in.

Intergroup conflict: An organization is an interlocking network of groups, departments, sections and work teams. These conflicts are not so much personal in nature, as they are due to factors inherent in the organizational structure. For example, there is active and continuous conflict between the union and the management. One of the most common, unfortunate and highlighted conflict is between line and staff. The line managers may resent their dependence on staff for information and recommendations. The staff may resent their inability to directly implement their own decisions and recommendations. This interdependence causes conflict. These conflicts that are caused by task interdependencies require that the relationship between interdependent units be redefined, wherever the values of these interdependent factors change, otherwise these conflicts will become further pronounced.

These inter-unit conflicts can also be caused by inconsistent rewards and differing performance criteria for different units and groups. For example, salesmen who depend upon their commission as a reward for their efforts may promise their customers certain quantity of the product and delivery times that the manufacturing department may find it impossible to meet, causing conflict between the two units.

Different functional groups within the organization may come into conflict with each other because of their different specific objectives. There are some fundamental differences among different units of the organization both in the structure and the process and thus each unit develops its own organizational sub-culture. These sub-cultures, according to Lawrence and Lorsch differ in terms of: (a) goal orientation that can be highly specific for production but highly fluid for Research and Development, (b) time orientation that is short run for sales and long run for research, (c) formality of structure that is highly informal in research and highly formal in production and (d) supervisory style that may be more democratic in one area as compared to another.

A classic example of inter-unit conflict is between sales and production, as discussed earlier. The sales department is typically customer-oriented and wants to maintain high inventories for filling orders as they are received, which is a costly option as against the production department that is strongly concerned about cost effectiveness requiring as little inventory of finished product at hand as possible.

Similarly, inter-group conflict may arise between day shift workers and night shift workers who might blame each other for anything that goes wrong from missing tools to maintenance problems.

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Inter-organizational conflict: Conflict also occurs between organizations that in some way are dependent on each other. This conflict may be between buyer organizations and the supplier organizations about quantity, quality and delivery times of raw materials and other policy issues, between unions and organizations employing their members, between government agencies that regulate certain organizations and the organizations that are affected by them. These conflicts must be adequately resolved or managed properly for the benefit of both types of organizations.

10.2.1 The Causes of Conflict

The various types of conflict as discussed above have already been pointed out in the previous discussion. Basically, the causes of conflict fall into three distinct categories. Accordingly, these causes can be restructured and placed into one of these categories. These categories deal with communicational, behavioural and structural aspects.

Communicational Aspects of Conflict

Poor communication, though not reflecting substantive differences, can have powerful effect in causing conflict. Misunderstood or partial information during the process of communication can make a difference between the success and the failure of a task and such failure for which the responsibility becomes difficult to trace can cause conflict between the sender of the communication and the receiver of the communication. Thus the problems in the communication process – whether these problems relate to too much or too little communication, filtering of communication, semantic problems or noise–act to retard collaboration and stimulate misunderstanding. The filtering process occurs when information is passed through many levels or when it passes through many members. The amount of information is functional up to a point, beyond which it become a source of conflict. Semantic difficulties arise due to differences in backgrounds, differences in training, selective perception and inadequate information about others.

As an example, if a manager going on an extended vacation fails to communicate properly with his subordinates as to who would be doing what, he will find these jobs only partially done with subordinates blaming each other for not completing the tasks. Accordingly, adequate, complete, and correctly understood communication is very important in orderly completion of tasks, thus reducing the chances of a conflict.

Behavioural Aspects of Conflict

These conflicts arise out of human thoughts and feelings, emotions and attitudes, values and perceptions and reflect some basic traits of a personality. Thus some people's values or perceptions of situations are particularly likely to generate conflict

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with others. For example, highly authoritarian and dogmatic persons are more prone to antagonise co-workers by highlighting minor differences that might exist and may overreact causing a conflict. This conflict may also be based on personal biases regarding such factors as religion, race or sex. Some men feel poorly about women workers. These conflicts are not about issues but about persons. Some families carry on enmity for generations.

The conflict can also arise due to differing viewpoints about various issues. For example, two vice-presidents may differ in their viewpoints regarding which strategic plan to implement. The value based conflicts arise due to different values that may be culturally based. For instance, one vice-president may want to retire some workers to save costs while another vice-president may have human sensitivity and support other methods of cutting costs. As another example, a professor may value freedom of teaching methods and a close supervision of his teaching technique is likely to induce conflict.

From an organizational behaviour point of view, there is conflict between the goals of the formal organization and the psychological growth of the individual. While the formal organization demands dependency, passivity and to some degree obedience from its members, the psychologically developed individuals exhibit independence, creativity and a desire to participate in decision making and decision implementing process. The needs of individuals and the formal organization being inconsistent with each other, result in behavioural conflict.

Structural Aspects of Conflict

These conflicts arise due to issues related to the structural design of the organization as a whole as well as its sub-units. Some of the structurally related factors are:

Size of the organization: The larger the size of the organization, the more the basis for existence of conflict. It is likely that as the organization becomes larger, there is greater impersonal formality, less goals clarity, more supervisory levels and supervision and greater chance of information being diluted or distorted as it is passed along. All these factors are breeding grounds for conflict.

Line-staff distinction: One of the frequently mentioned and continuous source of conflict is the distinction between the line and staff units within the organization. Line units are involved in operations that are directly related to the core activities of the organization. For example, production department would be a line unit in a manufacturing organization and sales department would be considered line unit in a customer oriented service organization. Staff units are generally in an advisory capacity and support the line function. Examples of staff departments are legal department, public relations, personnel and research and development.

Some of the sources of conflict between line and staff are:

- Since the staff generally advises and the line decides and acts, the staff often feels powerless.
- Staff employees may simply be resented because of their specialized knowledge and expertise.
- Occasionally, staff employees are impatient with the conservative and slow manner in which the line managers put the staff ideas to work. Also line managers may resist an idea because they did not think of it in the first place, which hurts their ego.
- Staff has generally easier access to top management which is resented by the line management.
- Staff is generally younger and more educated and did not go through the run of the mill and hence their ideas may be considered more theoretical and academic rather than practical.
- There is conflict about the degree of importance between the line and staff as far as the contribution towards the growth of the company is concerned.
- The line usually complains that if things go right then the staff takes the credit and if things go wrong, then the line gets the blame for it.
- Generally the staff people typically think in terms of long-range issues while line people are more involved with short-term or day-today concerns. These differing time horizons can become a source of conflict.

Participation: It is assumed that if the subordinates are not allowed to participate in the decision making process then they will show resentment that will induce conflict. On the other hand ironically, if subordinates are provided with greater participation opportunities, the levels of conflict also tend to be higher. This may be due to the fact that increased participation leads to greater awareness of individual differences. This conflict is further enhanced when individuals tend to enforce their points of view on others.

Role ambiguity: A role reflects a set of activities associated with a certain position in the organization. If these work activities are ill defined, then the person who is carrying out these activities will not perform as others expect him to, because his role is not clearly defined. This will create conflict, especially between this individual and those people who depend upon his activities. A hospital or a medical clinic employing a number of physicians with overlapping specialties might cause conflict due to role ambiguity. Such conflict can be reduced by redefining and clarifying roles and their interdependencies.

Design of work-flow: These are primarily inter-group problems and conflicts that are outcomes of poorly designed work-flow structure and poorly planned

NOTES

coordination requirements, specially where tasks are interdependent. According to Sashkin and Morris, "organizations are made up of many different groups that must work together towards the accomplishment of common objectives." For example, in a hospital, the doctors and nurses must work together and their tasks are highly interdependent. If they do not coordinate their activities well, then there will be confusion and conflict. Similarly, in a restaurant, the cook and the waiter depend upon each other for critical information and uncoordinated activities between the cook and the waiter would create conflicts and problems.

Scarcity of resources: When individuals and units must share such resources as capital, facilities, staff assistance and so on, and these resources are scarce and there is high competition for them then conflict can become quite intense. This is especially true in declining organizations, where resources become even more scarce due to cutback in personnel and services so that the concerned units become highly competitive for the shrinking pool thus creating hostility among groups who may have put up a peaceful front at the time of abundance. For example, two research scientists who do not get along very well, may not show their hostility until a reduction in laboratory space provokes each to protect his area.

10.3 MEASURES TO STIMULATE CONFLICT

It has been pointed out earlier that under certain circumstances, conflict is necessary and desirable in order to create changes and challenges within the organization. In such situations the management would adopt a policy of conflict stimulation so that it encourages involvement and innovation. How does the manager recognise a situation that is vulnerable to conflict stimulation? Some of the factors for creating conflict are: too much satisfaction with the status quo, low rate of employee turnover, shortage of new ideas, strong resistance to change, friendly relations taking precedence over organizational goals and excessive efforts at avoiding conflict. Some of the ways of stimulating conflict as suggested by S.P. Robbins are:

Appoint managers who support change: Some highly authoritative managers are very conservative in their outlook and tend to suppress opposing viewpoints. Accordingly, change-oriented managers should be selected and placed in such positions that encourage innovation and change from the status quo.

Encourage competition: Competition, if managed properly can enhance conflict which would be beneficial to the organization. Such competition can be created by tying incentives to performance, recognition of efforts, bonuses for higher performance and status enhancement. Such competition and conflict would result in new ideas regarding improving productivity.

NOTES

Manipulate scarcity: Let the various individuals and groups compete for scarce resources. This would cause conflict and make the individuals and groups do their best in order to fully utilise such resources. For example, one company president felt that the budget allocations to various departments did not reflect changing priorities and accordingly, a zero-based budget system was introduced so that each department had to justify its current budget regardless of the past allocations. This created fierce competition and conflict and resulted in changes in funds allocation that were beneficial to the organization.

Play on status differences: Sometimes, ignoring the senior staff members and giving visible responsibilities to junior members makes the senior staff work harder to prove that they are better than the junior staff members. In one business school, the dean appointed a low-status assistant professor in charge of the curriculum. The senior professors resented having to answer to the junior professor. This caused conflict and in order to assert their superiority, the full professors initiated a series of changes that revitalised the entire MBA programme.

Interpersonal Trust Building

While there are a number of behavioural as well as organizational factors, as discussed before, that contribute to the existence of conflict, there may be just one single factor that may be highly contributory to reducing that conflict. This factor is ‘ trust’. Trust is, highly intangible element but very important in our civilized living. Its presence or absence can govern our inter-personal behaviour to large extent. Our ability to trust has a great impact on our working lives, our family interactions and our achievement of personal and organizational goals.

Since trust is a function of behaviour, such behaviours that lead to defensiveness must be identified and modified. These defensive or aggressive behaviours create a climate that is conducive to mistrust thus leading to conflict in interpersonal areas. Jack Gibb has identified certain behaviours that he calls ‘aggressive’ behaviours that should be avoided and certain behaviours which he calls ‘supportive’ behaviours that tend to reduce defensiveness and conflict and should be promoted.

Dr. John K. Stout of the university of Scranton, writing in *Supervisory Management* (February 1984), suggests that these behaviours are not necessarily mutually exclusive, nor should all the aggressive behaviours be avoided under all circumstances, but in general the supportive behaviour attitudes should be adopted as much as possible.

10.3.1 Conflict and Performance

The earlier traditional view of conflict considered it harmful, destructive and unnecessary. This view was consistent with the attitudes that prevailed about group behaviour and interaction during 1930s and 1940s. The existence of conflict

was regarded as a sign that something had gone wrong and it needed to be corrected. The view held that conflict is to be avoided at all costs. Both the scientific management approach and the administrative school of management relied heavily on developing such organizational structures that would specify tasks, rules, regulations, procedures and authority relationships so that if a conflict develops then these built-in rules and regulations would identify and correct problems of such conflict. It was believed that the existence of conflict reflected poor management and the deliberate efforts of trouble makers. Thus through proper management techniques and attention to the causes of conflict, it could be eliminated and organizational performance improved. The Human Relations School subscribed to a similar theory that conflict is avoidable by creating an environment of goodwill and trust. Since organizational conflict involves disagreements on such factors as allocation of resources, nature of goals and objectives, organizational policies and procedures, nature of assignments and distribution of rewards, this conflict at its worst can lead to unnecessary stress, blockage in communication, lack of cooperation, increased sense of distrust and suspicion and this results in reduced organizational effectiveness. Accordingly, management has always been concerned with avoiding conflict if possible and resolving it soon if it occurs.

In recent years however, management scholars have shifted their view of conflict. This view is known as behavioural view and it proposes that because people differ in their attitudes, values and goals, conflict is but a natural outcome in any group of people and that it can be helpful and constructive if it is handled properly. The more modern view of conflict holds that conflict may in fact, under certain situations, be necessary for performance effectiveness, because harmonious, peaceful and cooperative groups can become static and such level of conflict that keeps the group alive, self critical and creative is desirable and management is usually encouraged to maintain such level of conflict. This is especially true in such organizations as Research and Development, advertising agencies, public policy groups and so on.

10.3.2 Conflict Outcomes

Some of the positive consequences or conflict outcomes of conflict are:

- **It helps in analytical thinking:** Conflict may induce challenge to such views, opinions, rules, policies, goals and plans that would require a critical analysis in order to justify these as they are or make such changes that may be required, As H.M. Carlisle puts it, ‘no situation is more detrimental to an organization than letting poor decisions go unchallenged.’
- **It helps in increased cohesion:** Conflict between different organizations develops loyalty and cohesion within an organization and it develops a greater

NOTES

sense of group identity in order to compete with outsiders. It fosters in dedication and commitment to organizational and group goals.

- **Conflict promotes competition and hence it results in increased efforts:** Some individuals are highly motivated by conflict and severe competition. For example, a professor who is turned down for a promotion due to conflict within the division may work harder to prove that he is more capable and deserves a promotion. Similarly, if a group of production workers during the day shift finds out that the similar group at night shift produced more, it would result in the improved performance for the day shift also. Thus such conflict and competition leads to high level of effort and output.
- **It serves as a foundation for organizational development:** Conflict with the status quo is a pre-requisite to change. Creative and innovative people are always looking for grounds to challenge the status quo. These challenges lead to search for alternatives to existing patterns that leads to organizational change and development.
- **Conflict when expressed can clear the air and reduce tension:** Some disagreements if unexpressed, can lead to imaginative distortions of truth, sense of frustration and tension, high mental exaggerations and biased opinions resulting in fear and distrust. However, when it is expressed, it may show the cause of conflict to be a minor one resulting in cooperation and compromise.

Check Your Progress

1. Differentiate between competition and conflict.
2. List the three categories for the causes of conflict.

10.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Competition is directed towards obtaining a goal and one group does not interfere with the efforts of another group while conflict is directed against another group and actions are taken to frustrate the other group's actions towards goal achievement.
2. The causes of conflict fall into three distinct categories. Accordingly, these causes can be restructured and placed into one of these categories. These categories deal with communicational, behavioural and structural aspects.

10.5 SUMMARY

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- The concept of conflict, being an outcome of behaviours, is an integral part of human life.
- Since conflict has both positive and negative connotations and consequences, it must be looked into and managed for useful purposes.
- Interpersonal conflict involves conflict between two or more individuals and is probably the most common and most recognised conflict.
- An organization is an interlocking network of groups, departments, sections and work teams. These conflicts are not so much personal in nature, as they are due to factors inherent in the organizational structure.
- Conflict is necessary and desirable in order to create changes and challenges within the organization. In such situations the management would adopt a policy of conflict stimulation so that it encourages involvement and innovation.
- While there are a number of behavioural as well as organizational factors that contribute to the existence of conflict, there may be just one single factor that may be highly contributory to reducing that conflict. This factor is ' trust'.
- Conflict between different organizations develops loyalty and cohesion within an organization and it develops a greater sense of group identity in order to compete with outsiders.
- Some disagreements if unexpressed, can lead to imaginative distortions of truth, sense of frustration and tension, high mental exaggerations and biased opinions resulting in fear and distrust. However, when it is expressed, it may show the cause of conflict to be a minor one resulting in cooperation and compromise.

10.6 KEY WORDS

- **Antagonism:** It means opposition of a conflicting force, tendency, or principle.
- **Aggression:** It means feelings of anger or antipathy resulting in hostile or violent behaviour; readiness to attack or confront.
- **Trust:** It means firm belief in the reliability, truth, or ability of someone or something.

10.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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Short-Answer Questions

1. Write a short-note on interpersonal conflict.
2. What are the positive consequences of conflict?
3. Briefly explain the relationship between conflict and performance.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Describe the various types of conflicts.
2. Examine the causes of conflict in organizations.
3. Discuss the ways of stimulating conflict.

10.8 FURTHER READINGS

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BLOCK - III
ORGANIZATIONAL PROCESS

NOTES

UNIT 11 CAREER PLANNING

Structure

11.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about organizational conflicts. In this unit, the discussion will turn towards career planning. A career plan is an individual's choice of occupation, organization and career path. It encourages employees to explore and gather information, which enables them to synthesize, gain competencies, make decisions, set objectives and take action. The unit will discuss the meaning of career planning, the process of career planning, as well as its limitations.

11.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Define career planning
- Describe the process of career planning
- Examine the advantages and limitations of career planning

11.2 MEANING AND CHARACTERISTICS

Career planning is a managed process of dialogue between each manager and the organization about career prospects, aspiration, skills, and development needs (Burgoyne and Germain 1984). This can occur in the form of a cyclical process

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comprising performance reviews, identification of career potential, and determination of learning needs for each and every employee in the organization. It is essential to have this review on a timely basis, either annually or semi-annually. In case these processes are linked with corporate policy, it would be easier to review the managerial career in light of changing organization or corporate direction, and corporate directions can be managed on the basis of available information on skills, aspirations, potential, and the vision of the management teams in organization. The process of career planning can aid an organization in trying to identify the future qualified and talented personnel, increase the involvement of the key employees, and improve the match between the individual and organization needs and wants (Granrose and Portwood 1987).

Williams (1984) contends that it is important to understand that career planning is not just meant for managers and professional, but is should be applicable to clerical and part-time employees too. There are leaner and flatter organizations which do not provide with enough promotional opportunities to employees in terms of upward or onward movement. In such cases, organization will have to provide with an inbuilt advancement with increased emphasis on career development in terms of job rotation, lateral moves, or temporary exchanges with other organization. If this is not paid attention, competent and talented employees will start looking for opportunities outside the organization.

Career Plateaus

Herriot and Pemberton (1995) found that in organization where there are fewer opportunities available for promotions, employees are likely to experience career plateau. There are four different categories of employees who will experience career plateau in different ways:

1. **Career fixers:** These employees are capable of doing wide variety of jobs without any desire for upward hierarchical movement. The requirement is that the job should be attractive enough to retain their interest. They are usually younger in age and have spent less time in work organizations.
2. **Ambitions careerist:** These are the younger ambitious lots who have very high expectations of getting promotion and moving to a higher rung in the organization at the earliest possible opportunity. They are confident that they will never become redundant.
3. **Career disengagers:** Their level of engagement with career is low and they are looking forward to retirement or part-time work. They generally belong to the group of older employees who have lost interest in the job and are looking forward to a retired and comfortable life.

NOTES

4. **Career lifers:** These managers believe their career to be their life and decide to stay with the organization as long as possible. They tend be older and are convinced that promotion are a thing of past.

Another observation is that managers of present age are reaching plateaus much earlier, at the age of 30–40 years, as compared to their counterpoint in 1980s.

Career Planning Categories

Career planning can be categorized predominantly into five ways (Morgan, Hall & Martier 1999). These are as follows:

1. **Career pathing:** Career pathing is a process which helps an individual move towards a higher level position within the organization. The person may be required to take up additional assignment or overseas projects in order to gain an understanding of overseas operation. Many organizations provide flexibility and give opportunities to employees to move laterally or vertically (Di Prete 1987) so as to enhance their skills and capabilities.
2. **Career counselling:** Career counselling is a process which helps an employee to explore alternative modes of finding solution to problems related to career. The aim is to help the person take responsibility for actions. The person responsible for career counselling should be sympathetic, genuine, non-judgmental, and be able to create an atmosphere of trust and confidence. The counsellor should have an aptitude for good listening, clarifying issues, reflecting, summarizing, and offering guidance.

   Career counselling provides the employees with an ability to understand the opportunities and constraints in career development (Nathem and Hill 1992). Van Manner and Schien (1977) list the issues that could be explored in a counselling session between the client and the counsellor:

   - Career goals, aspirations and expectations
   - Opportunities available within the organization
   - Self-development of employee in order to shoulder additional responsibilities
   - Identification of new assignment to help employee grow
3. **Human resource planning:** The process of human resource planning deals with forecasting the human resource needs, creating charts to show succession plan, developing a record of skills and abilities of employees within the company.

4. **Career information system:** Employees in an organization need to be kept informed about the career information. The vacancies in the organization should be advertised internally on notice boards and through newsletter, etc. Senior managers can use leaflets, videos, talks, and discussions to pass on the career information to the staff. This would help to generate awareness among employees and keep them motivated.
5. **Special programmes:** Some special types of programmes to help employees disengage from the organization can be formalized. Pre-retirement programmes and outplacement programmes can help persons who are leaving the organization to maintain their self-dignity and self-worth. Various programmes to help employees change their career direction from technical to managerial ones or to help the minorities or women to solve their problems special programmes can be designed (Bowen & Hisrich 1986).

Need for Career Planning

It is important to plan for one's career as it gives one much needed direction and makes it clear there where an individual sees oneself in future. It makes an individual aware of his strength and weaknesses and the skills and knowledge that are needed to achieve his objectives in future. A large proportion of an employee's life is spent in achieving career goals, thus it is very vital to make sure that right steps were taken and correct planning is done in the early years of an individual's life. As a majority of us are not sure what we want from life and so it in very important to plan out things. Therefore, career planning is what gives one's true meaning and purpose.

11.3 PROCESS OF CAREER PLANNING

To plan one's career well and succeed in that, an individual needs to plan one's career carefully. It is important, therefore, for him to know himself well and understand one's priorities and interests. An individual needs to introspect before planning one's career. For this, there are certain prerequisites that are essential before he plunges into a career. These are as follows:

- **Get to know yourself:** The first step in the process of planning one's career is to realize and understand one's goals, values, and aspirations. One has to clearly understand what defines success and happiness for him. The definition may vary from person to person. But basically success is the ability to achieve one's objectives, whatever they are and happiness is feeling satisfied with one's situation. Career planning is a subset of life planning

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which involves making choices between various aspects of one's life and work (career being one of them). The other aspects may include family, money, societal concerns, spirituality, social life, health, recreation, and many more. Effective career planning will entail achieving a perfect balance between the work and other aspects of life.

One way of getting to know oneself is by answering the question, "Where have I come from"? This will require a lot of introspection as to write about yourself freely without any obstruction. Do not focus on whether you are writing "right" or "wrong" things. After finishing the review, analyse your results to known areas that seem the most and the least important to you. Also identify your major values in life and rank them in the order of importance. This exercise will help you identify some of your aspirations and interests. Another way to answer these questions is to write your autobiography (Clawson 1992).

- **Determine your interest:** It is assumed that by the time an individual is pursuing his/ her graduation degree, there is enough clarity about what occupation or profession he/she wants to pursue amongst the cluster of Jobs (Holland 1973). Different inventories also could be utilized for identifying one's area of interest in different occupation.
- **Know your skills:** It is also important to know your skills to understand what one can give to the job. Make a list of skills that you possess currently in order of their strength and keep on adding to this list as you learn more skills or further enhance the existing skills.

The process of knowing and developing your skills is based on continuous training and experience. One not only needs to develop skills for the current job but also for the future jobs in anticipation, if possible.

The steps in the career planning process are as follows:

1. To appraise one's self
2. Identify opportunities
3. Set goal
4. Prepare plans, and
5. Implement plans.

Let us examine each of these steps.

Self-appraisal

As discussed earlier, knowledge about oneself in terms of one's skills, interests, and value system will help an individual decide on one's career effectively. A good

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introductory exercise in this area would be to ask the individual to write his obituary as he would like it to appear x years hence upon death. The individual is asked to write down what he would like others to remember him by? What did he always want to do but never found time or opportunity to do? What are his life and career concerns?

Another exercise to assist in self-analysis requires the person to identify his or her strengths and weaknesses in regards to technical, interpersonal, communications, administrative, and personal skills. He is then asked to indicate the degree of importance he attaches to such jobs characteristics as autonomy, security, affiliation with others, financial rewards, and influence over others. Next he is asked to describe jobs he has held that are most and least rewarding. Finally, he is asked to describe his ideal next job.

Another means of finding out information about oneself is to take attitude and vocational interest tests. These are administered by career counselling centres at school and colleges.

Identify Opportunities

One's skills, interests, and values should be related to career opportunities. Although some would argue that there is always room for one better person in a deciding occupation, those choosing this course of action ought to recognize they will have a "tough row to hoe". This course is like trying to swim upstream. It is a good idea to study trends in the economy, population demographics, technology, and public policy because these shape the future job market.

The HR office should publish information regarding jobs within the organization. This can take the form of organization chart, lists of titles, and actual description of jobs classified according to pay level, department, and location. The HR office should also publish the requisite qualification for each of these jobs. Job openings, as they occur, can be announced through bulletin boards, notices, interoffice announcements, and through advertising media like newspapers, televisions, etc. Many technical and professional societies publish information about career in their specialties.

Set Goals

After the individual has appraised personal strength, weaknesses, interests, and values and after obtaining knowledge of job trends and opportunities, career goals can be properly established. This will require the setting of short-term, intermediate, and long-term goals. Goals that lead to growth should be challenging so that the individual gains new skills and outlooks. The goals should be consistent with one's capabilities and compatible with one's self-image.

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Prepare Plans

In thinking through the measures, one will need to take precautions to meet one's goals. It is also advisable to consult with one's supervisor and with the responsible member of the personal department. Plans may be made for any of various actions designed to achieve the career goals. Reasonably one ought to start with feasible, short-term, on-the job learning experiences and useful of-the-job training activities. As success is achieved on the early activities, bigger and longer run developmental projects can be tackled. The planning should take into account the special needs of the person such as skills and experiences required to reach the various goals.

Implement Plans

For implementation of one's plans, it is most desirable that the organizational climate be supportive. This means that top-level management must encourage all echelons of management to help their subordinates develop their careers. Actions to implement the plans may include special project assignments, temporary job transfers, filling in for the boss's vacation, in-service training classes, self-study reading assignments, assignment to a special task force, and evening classes in an area college.

11.4 EVALUATION OF CAREER PLANNING: ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS

Leibowitz and Schlossberg (1981) and Williams (1984) have outlined different benefits of career planning process which have been discussed below:

- Helps employees develop a realistic expectations of their present work and future in their organization;
- Generates awareness about the opportunities available within the organization and possible constraints;
- Clarifies supervisors role in career counselling;
- Develops greater senses of personal responsibility for career planning and development;
- Helps to have a clearer understanding of one's values, interests, and abilities;
- Helps to develop better ability to resolve job-career-family issues.

Organization also is benefited as it is able to make better use of employees' capabilities. Employees' performance is also improved and the turnover rate gets reduced.

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Drawbacks of Career planning

An ineffective career planning may result in certain dysfunctional outcomes among employees leading to high anxiety and frustrations (Moorhead and Griffin 1998). Some of the limitations of career planning are as follows:

- Supervisors may spend a lot of time counselling their subordinates;
- There may be too much of overload in the personal system.

The end result could be increased frustration, disappointment, reduced commitment, increase in employee turnover, and complacency in individual and organization performance.

Check Your Progress

1. Who are career fixers?
2. List the drawbacks of the career planning process.

11.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Career fixers are employees are capable of doing wide variety of jobs without any desire for upward hierarchical movement. The requirement is that the job should be attractive enough to retain their interest. They are usually younger in age and have spent less time in work organizations.
2. Some of the limitations of career planning are as follows:
   - Supervisors may spend a lot of time counselling their subordinates;
   - There may be too much of overload in the personal system.

11.6 SUMMARY

- Career planning is a managed process of dialogue between each manager and the organization about career prospects, aspiration, skills, and development needs.
- Career planning is not just meant for managers and professional, but is should be applicable to clerical and part-time employees too.
- In organizations where there are fewer opportunities available for promotions, employees are likely to experience career plateau.
- The process of human resource planning deals with forecasting the human resource needs, creating charts to show succession plan, developing a record of skills and abilities of employees within the company.

NOTES

- It is important to plan for one's career as it gives one much needed direction and makes it clear there where an individual sees oneself in future.
- To plan one's career well and succeed in that, an individual needs to plan one's career carefully. It is important, therefore, for him to know himself well and understand one's priorities and interests.
- Career planning helps employees develop a realistic expectations of their present work and future in their organization.
- An ineffective career planning may result in certain dysfunctional outcomes among employees leading to high anxiety and frustrations.

11.7 KEY WORDS

- **Career Planning:** It is an individual's lifelong process of establishing personal career.
- **Promotion:** It is the action of promoting someone or something to a higher position or rank or the fact of being so promoted.
- **Career Counselling:** It is a process which helps an employee to explore alternative modes of finding solution to problems related to career.

11.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What is career pathing?
2. Why is career planning needed?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the benefits of career planning.
2. Examine the steps in the career planning process.

11.9 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 12 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

NOTES

Structure

12.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about career planning. This unit will introduce you to the idea of emotional intelligence. Emotional Intelligence (EI) is a debatable topic among business leaders and HR professionals. EI has been discussed extensively in the last decade. It is largely used to denote terms such as soft skills, people skills and a general ability to cope with the challenges of life. The unit will discuss the meaning and types of emotions, as well as the advantages and dimensions of emotional intelligence.

12.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the meaning and types of emotions
- Explain the dimensions of emotional intelligence
- Describe the advantages and limitations of emotional intelligence

12.2 EMOTIONS: MEANING AND TYPES

Etymologically the word emotion is derived from the Latin word *emovere* which means to stir up, to agitate or to excite. RS Woodworth (1945), by making use of this explanation has defined emotion in this way, 'Emotion is a moved or stirred up state of an organism. It is a stirred up state of feeling, that is, the way it appears to the individual himself. It is a disturbed muscular and glandular activity—that is the way it appears to an external observer'.

According to Crow and Crow (1973), an emotion 'is an effective experience that accompanies generalized inner adjustment and mental and psychological stirred up states in the individual, and that shows itself in his own behaviour'.

William McDougall (1949) says, 'An instinct is an inherited or innate psycho-physical disposition which determines its possessor to perceive and to pay attention to, objects of a certain class, to experience an emotional excitement of a particular quality upon perceiving such an object, and to act in regard to it in a particular manner, or, at least, to experience an impulse to such an action'. This statement gives us the nature of emotions as well. According to McDougall, an instinctive behaviour has three aspects:

(i) Cognitive or knowing or the perceptual aspect.

(ii) Affection or feeling or emotional effects.

(iii) Conative or doing or striving or executive, active or the behavioural aspect.

Let us take an example. A child sees a bull coming towards him. He experiences an instinctive fear and undergoes the above three processes. Firstly, he perceives the bull, secondly he experiences an emotion of fear and thirdly he tries to run away. It is, therefore concluded that an emotion is an affective experience that one undergoes during an instinctive excitement.

McDougall discovered 14 basic instincts and pointed out that each and every emotion, whatever may be, is the product of some instinctive behaviour.

The instincts with their associated emotions are listed alphabetically as under:

No.	*Instinct*	*Emotion Accompanying an Instinct*
1.	Acquisition	Feeling of ownership
2.	Appeal	Distress
3.	Construction	Feeling of creativeness
4.	Curiosity	Wonder
5.	Flight or Escape	Fear
6.	Food seeking	Appetite
7.	Gregariousness	Feeling of loneliness
8.	Laughter	Amusement
9.	Parental	Tenderness, Love
10.	Pugnacity or Combat	Anger
11.	Repulsion	Disgust
12.	Self-assertion	Positive feeling or elation
13.	Sex, Mating	Lust
14.	Submission	Negative feeling

Kimball Young notes, 'Emotion is the aroused psychological state of the organism marked by increased bodily activity and strong feelings directed to some subject'.

Chief Characteristics of Emotions

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There are several characteristics associated with humans and emotions. Some of these important ones are given below:

1. Emotional experiences are associated with some instincts or biological drives.
2. Emotions, in general, are the product of perception.
3. The core of an emotion is feeling that which is essentially linked with some sort of urge or impulsive act to do. There is only a difference of degree between feeling and emotion.
4. Every emotional experience involves several physical and psychological changes in the organism. Some of these changes, like bulge of the eyes, flush of the face, flow of tears, pulse rate, are easily observable. Also, there are internal physiological changes like circulation of blood, impact on the digestive system and changes in the functioning of some glands.
5. Emotions are frequent.
6. Emotions are expressed in relation to concrete objects or situations.
7. Emotions are temporary.
8. Emotional expressions in early childhood are intense irrespective of the intensity of the stimulus.
9. Small children fail to hide their emotions and express them indirectly through different activities like crying, nail-biting, thumb-sucking and speech difficulties.
10. Emotions are prevalent in every living organism.
11. Emotions are present at all stages of development and can be aroused in young as well as in old people.
12. Emotions differ from person to person.
13. The same emotion can be aroused by a number of different stimuli—objects or situations.
14. Emotions rise abruptly but die slowly.
15. Emotions are subject to displacement. The anger aroused on account of one stimuli gets transferred to other situations. The anger caused by the rebuking of the officer to his subordinate may be transferred in beating of his children at home.
16. One emotion may give rise to a number of likewise emotions.

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Effects of Emotions on the Developing Individual

Given below are the important effects of emotions on the developing individual:

1. Emotions provide energy to an individual to face a particular situation.
2. Emotions work as motivators of our behaviour.
3. Emotions influence our adjustment in the society.
4. Highly emotional conditions disturb the mental equilibrium of an individual.
5. Highly emotional conditions disturb the reasoning and thinking of an individual.

Inter-relation of Physical and Emotional Factors

There is a close relationship between the physical and emotional factors. An imbalance or disturbance in the child's physical growth is will most likely be reflected in his intellectual functioning and personality adjustment. An unhealthy emotional climate is likely to affect the physical health of the child and it may hinder his normal physical growth. A child under emotional strain is likely to be physically unhealthy and shows signs of physical ailments. This relationship is illustrated in Fig. 12.1.

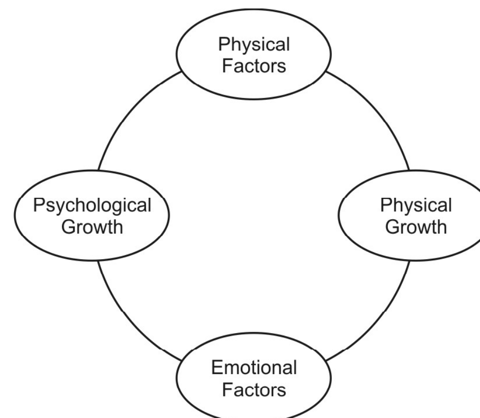


Fig. 12.1 *Inter-relation of Physical and Emotional Development*

Kinds of Emotions: Positive and Negative

Emotions, in general can be categorized into two kinds—positive emotions and negative emotions. Emotions like affection (love), amusement, curiosity, happiness and joy which are very helpful and essential to the normal behaviour are termed as positive emotions.

Unpleasant emotions like anger, fear and jealousy which are harmful to the individual's development are termed as negative emotions.

It should be borne in mind that it is not to be assumed that all the positive emotions are always good and the negative emotions are bad. Excess of anything can be harmful. Whether an emotion will prove to be helpful or harmful to an individual depends upon the following factors:

(i) The frequency and intensity of the emotional experience.
(ii) The situation, occasion and the nature of stimulus which arouses the emotion.
(iii) The kind of emotional experience.

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Emotions with too much intensity and frequency whether positive or negative bring forth harmful effects.

12.2.1 Managing Emotions

Emotional development of an individual is influenced by a number of factors—health and physical development, intelligence, family environment, school environment, peer groups' environment, neighbourhood, community and society's environment.

1. **Health and physical development of an individual:** There is a positive correlation between health and physical development and emotional development. Any deficiency in health and physical development, be it internal or external, leads to emotional disturbance. Children who are weak in structure or who suffer occasional illness are more emotionally upset and unstable than children whose health is better. Any abnormal increase or decrease in the normal functioning of the glands creates obstacles in the proper emotional development.
2. **Intelligence and emotional development:** H Meltzer (1937) as quoted by E B Hurlock observed, 'There is less emotional control, on the average, among those of the lower intellectual level than among children of the same group who are bright'. An intelligent person, with his thinking and reasoning powers, is in a better position to exercise control over his emotions.
3. **Family environment and emotional development:** A cordial environment, i.e., healthy relationships between the parents is very conducive to the emotional development of the child. The treatment meted out to the child by the parents and other members of the family influences his emotional development. The order of birth (whether the first or the younger child), sex (son or daughter), size of the family, socio-economic status of the family, discipline in the family, the parental attitude towards the child (pampered, overprotected or neglected)—all are important factors in the emotional development of the child.
4. **School environment:** The attitude of the teachers, school discipline, academic facilities available, physical facilities, methods of teaching, co-curricular activities, etc.—all influence emotional development of children.
5. **Peer group relations and emotional development:** The influence of the classmates and other members of the group affects emotional development.

6. **Neighbourhood, community and society's environment and emotional development:** A child lives in the society and he picks up so many traits of his emotional behaviour from his surroundings.

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12.3 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE: DIMENTIONS, ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS

Recently, a growing group of psychologists has come to the conclusion that old concepts of I.Q. revolved around a narrow band of linguistic and mathematical skills and is most directly a predictor of success in the classroom but less so as life's paths diverged from academe. Psychologists like Sternberg and Salovey have taken a wider view of intelligence, trying to reinvent it in terms of what it takes to lead life successfully. Salovey subsumes Gardner's personal intelligences in his basic definition of emotional intelligence—"Emotional intelligence is the process of learning to understand our own emotions, learning to understand the emotions of others, gaining proficiency in positive emotional responses in oneself, and recognising and accepting the emotional responses of others." According to Goleman, emotional intelligence includes self-control, zeal, persistence, and the ability to motivate oneself. Emotional intelligence, once developed, can create the avenue for a productive, rewarding and fulfilling life. Peter Salovey has identified following the characteristics of emotional intelligence:

(1) Self-Awareness

Self-awareness is a key stone of emotional intelligence. It means recognising a feeling as it happens. The ability to monitor one's feelings from movement to movement is crucial to psychological insight and self-understanding whereas inability to notice our true feelings leaves us at their mercy. Self-awareness has three important aspects:

(*a*) ***Physical self-awareness*** which includes all that is tangible such as one's looks, clothing, hairstyle, jewellery and what kind of home he/she lives in.

(*b*) ***Academic self-awareness*** relates to understanding how well one does with regard to academic achievement and concept understanding. When a student has very little academic success, his academic self-concept suffers. However, this low academic achiever is fully aware of his weaknesses and is functioning in a cognitively conscious state; he is more open to strategies to increase academic performance.

(*c*) ***Social self-awareness*** indicates how one relates to other people whether they are peers, co-workers, family members or strangers. Honesty with oneself and a cognizant effort to perceive feelings in others is the key to self-awareness.

People having greater certainty about their feelings are better masters of their lives. They are autonomous and are in good psychological health. According

to Goleman (1997), we may be born with a predisposition toward optimism or pessimism, but our negative or positive outlook can be learned.

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(2) Managing Emotions

It is concerned with handling feelings and is based on self-awareness. A life without emotions would be a dull wasteland, cut off and isolated from the richness of life itself. What is wanted is appropriate emotion, feeling proportionate to circumstance. People who have poor ability to manage their emotions are in constant distress, whereas those who excel in it can bounce back for more quickly from life's setbacks and upsets.

(3) Motivating Oneself

It means marshalling emotions for the attainment of a goal is essential for paying attention, for self-motivation and mastery, and for creativity. Emotional self-control means delaying gratification and stifling impulsiveness—underlies accomplishment of all sorts. Such people are highly productive and effective in whatever they undertake.

(4) Recognising Emotions in Others

Empathy is a fundamental 'people skill'. Empathy builds on self-awareness. The more open we are to our own emotions, the more skilled we will be in reaching feelings. The failure to register another's feelings is a major deficiency in emotional intelligence, and a tragic failing in what it means to be human. People who are empathetic are more attuned to the subtle social signals that indicate what others feel, need or want. They are more successful in caring professions, teaching, sales and management.

(5) Handling Relationships

The art of relationships is, in large part, skill in managing emotions in others. These are the abilities that strengthen popularity, leadership and interpersonal effectiveness. People who excel in these skills do well in anything that relies on interacting smoothly with others; they are social stars.

From the perspective of emotional intelligence, having hope means that one will not be given into overwhelming anxiety, a defeatist attitude or depression in the face of difficult challenges or setbacks. Optimism is an attitude that prevents people against falling into apathy, hopelessness, or depression in the face of rough going. According to Seligman, optimism means how people explain to themselves their successes and failures. Optimistic people see failure as due to something that can be changed so that they can succeed next time, while pessimists take the blame for failure, ascribing it to some lasting characteristic they are helpless to change.

People who have high emotional intelligence are socially poised, outgoing and cheerful, not prone to fearfulness or worried ruminations. They have a notable capacity for commitment to people or causes for taking responsibility and for

having an ethical outlook. They are sympathetic and caring in their relationships. Their emotional life is rich. They are comfortable with themselves, others and the social universe they live in.

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Implications of Emotional Intelligence on Managers

Emotional Intelligence (EQ) is primarily based upon intra-personal intelligence and involves a person's emotional and social skills and consists of the following five dimensions. Scholars are beginning to view these dimensions of emotional intelligence in a hierarchy, where self-awareness is the lowest level and social skill is the highest and most complex level. These dimensions are:

Self-awareness: The person is in touch with his own feelings and has the desire and the capacity to understand other people's feelings.

Self-regulation: This is the ability to control or redirect emotional extremes and other impulsive behaviours. For example, if you are angry at a client or a colleague, you control your emotions, keep calm and handle the situation professionally and later talk out the emotions with a co-worker or a friend. Self-regulation includes the ability to suspend judgement in order to think through the consequences of behaviour rather than acting on impulse.

Self-motivation: The person is driven for achievement irrespective of the rewards associated with such achievement. The achievement itself is a reward for them. Even when they do not achieve their goals, they remain optimistic and have a positive attitude.

Empathy: It is the ability to understand and be sensitive to the feelings, thoughts and situations of others.

Social skill: This is the ability to manage emotions of other people. Social skill includes the ability to build networks of relationships and it requires other elements of emotional intelligence such as empathy and self-regulation.

Use of EQ as a Managerial Tool

According to Deerlove, companies are putting more emphasis on the emotional dimension in evaluating leadership potential and focus on the importance of understanding relationships. It is said that leaders with high emotional intelligence tend to make personal connections with ease and are good at diffusing conflicting and explosive situations. Superior performance as a leader is a function of both the IQ and the EQ.

Many of the leaders have failed not because of low IQ but because of low EQ, even when they had high IQ. Now the US Air force and others are realizing that EQ is just as important as IQ in performing most responsible jobs. Most jobs do involve social interaction so employees do need some aspects of emotional intelligence to work effectively in social settings.

Daniel Goleman, is credited with his focus on importance of emotional intelligence as compared to intellect or technical skills. He believed that at senior

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levels, emotional intelligence rather than rational intelligence distinguishes the true leader. He concluded that human competencies such as self-awareness, self-discipline, persistence and empathy are of greater consequences than intellect as measured by IQ. In a business that is occupied with analysis of information, quantitative models, simulation and other cold analytical tools, emotional climate is more important for the success of the organization than previously recognised. Companies are re-evaluating the leadership characteristics they require for the future. Some companies talk about "inward journeys" and "know thyself" concepts. Emotional intelligence is a part of such re-evaluation.

Improving Emotional Intelligence and EI performance in an Organization

Emotional intelligence, in general, is associated with some inborn personality traits, such as extroversion, conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experience. It opens the debate whether EQ is inherited or whether it can be learned, just as there is active debate about leadership characteristics in the same sense. However, EQ can indeed be learnt to some extent. Just as many training organizations claim that IQ can be improved with proper care and mentoring, some companies have introduced seminars and training centres specifically for the purpose of improving EQ of executives. Unlike other professions and skills that can be learnt in the classroom setting or role playing, people do not develop emotional intelligence simply by learning about its dimensions. It requires personal coaching, patience, feedback and positive interaction. Emotional intelligence also increases with age and maturity.

Overall, emotional intelligence offers considerable potential and with the world in turmoil about diversity and differences in religion, race, gender and national origin, the importance of emotional intelligence is further exemplified.

As we have learnt before, EI is becoming increasingly important as it is considered to showcase better leadership skills, career success, team skills, and personal relations of the employee, thereby affecting their overall work at the organization.

Limitations of Emotional Intelligence

Some of the disadvantages of emotional intelligence are as follows:

- **Time:** Emotional intelligence cannot be learnt in day. It takes time to develop the skills necessary to fully harness emotional intelligence.
- **Testing:** It's difficult to test for emotional intelligence. One of the main concerns with testing methods is the debate on whether emotional intelligence is based on a person's temperament and personality, or whether it is a learned response developed through interpersonal skills and experiences.
- **Negative Views:** One drawback of emotional intelligence is that people may not take the importance of emotional intelligence seriously.
- **Misuse:** The knowledge of emotional intelligence can be used to manipulate others.

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Check Your Progress

1. What are the three aspects of instinctive behaviour?
2. What are negative emotions?
3. Define emotional intelligence.

12.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. An instinctive behaviour has three aspects:
   (i) Cognitive or knowing or the perceptual aspect.
   (ii) Affection or feeling or emotional effects.
   (iii) Conative or doing or striving or executive, active or the behavioural aspect
2. Unpleasant emotions like anger, fear and jealousy which are harmful to the individual's development are termed as negative emotions.
3. According to Goleman, emotional intelligence includes self-control, zeal, persistence, and the ability to motivate oneself. Emotional intelligence, once developed, can create the avenue for a productive, rewarding and fulfilling life.

12.5 SUMMARY

- Etymologically the word emotion is derived from the Latin word *emovere* which means to stir up, to agitate or to excite.
- According to Crow and Crow (1973), an emotion 'is an effective experience that accompanies generalized inner adjustment and mental and psychological stirred up states in the individual, and that shows itself in his own behaviour'.
- Emotions, in general can be categorized into two kinds—positive emotions and negative emotions.
- Emotional development of an individual is influenced by a number of factors—health and physical development, intelligence, family environment, school environment, peer groups' environment, neighbourhood, community and society's environment.
- The psychologist Salovey defines emotional intelligence as the process of learning to understand our own emotions, learning to understand the emotions

of others, gaining proficiency in positive emotional responses in oneself, and recognizing and accepting the emotional responses of others.

- Self-awareness is a key stone of emotional intelligence. It means recognizing a feeling as it happens. The ability to monitor one's feelings from movement to movement is crucial to psychological insight and self-understanding whereas inability to notice our true feelings leaves us at their mercy.
- Emotional intelligence is primarily based upon intra-personal intelligence and involves a person's emotional and social skills and consists of the following five dimensions.
- Emotional intelligence, in general, is associated with some inborn personality traits, such as extroversion, conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experience.

12.6 KEY WORDS

- **Emotional Development:** It refers to the ability to recognize, express, and manage feelings at different stages of life and to have empathy for the feelings of others.
- **Jealousy:** It means to be upset and angry because someone that you love seems interested in another person:
- **Self Awareness:** It is the capacity for introspection and the ability to recognize oneself as an individual separate from the environment and other individuals. It is not to be confused with consciousness in the sense of qualia.

12.7 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What are the implications of emotional intelligence on managers?
2. How does emotional intelligence contribute in performing better in an organization?
3. Write a short note on emotional intelligence as a managerial tool.

Long Answer Questions

1 'Self-awareness is the key stone of emotional intelligence.' Explain the statement.

2. Discuss how to manage emotions.
3. Do you think that emotional intelligence is relevant in the present global scenario? Give reasons for your answer.

12.8 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 13 POWER, POLITICS AND IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT

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Structure

13.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit will discuss organizational power and politics. Power differs from authority, in that authority is the right of decision and command and it is legitimate, approved by the organizational structure and is freely accepted by all. The legitimate use of authority and acceptance of it is designated as 'psychological contract'. 'The psychological contract is the mutual set of expectations which exist between an organization and an individual. These expectations cover what pay the individual will receive as well as the whole pattern of rights and privileges of the person. In return, the individual is expected to contribute both work and some commitment.' Legitimate authority gives the person legitimate power and as long as the commands issued fall within the boundaries of psychological contract, the person will comply. These commands are not considered as use of power of two reasons. First that the person who issues the command is fully authorized to do so and secondly the 'psychological contract' is based on mutual consent. It is the use of power outside the boundaries of 'psychological contract' is based on mutual consent. It is the use of power outside the boundaries of 'psychological contract', which is resented by people. It could also be called 'misuse of power'. On the other hand, organizational politics alludes to numerous activities associated with the use of influence tactics to enhance one's personal or organizational interests. Research studied conducted in this area have reflected that individuals with political skills are more adept in gaining personal power as well as in fulfilling job demand and in managing stress. They

also contribute significantly in the success of the organization in achieving the targets or meeting deadlines.

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13.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- State the nature and characteristics of power
- Discuss the sources and types of power
- Define impression management
- Discuss the existence of political behaviour in organizations

13.2 POWER, AUTHROITY AND INFLUENCE

Let us analyse the various elements of organizational power.

Definition and Nature of Organizational Power

Power is defined as the 'possibility of imposing one's will on the behaviour of others'. The essence of power is control over the behaviour of others. Power is also a reflection of influence that one person may have over others. If you are able to convince another person to agree to your views or change his or her own opinion on a given issue, you have exercised influence over the other person and thus power has been used.

All managers have a two-dimensional power base. One is the power generated because of the position of the manager in the hierarchy of the organization and the second is the personal power. A successful manager is the one who has built up high positional as well as personal power base.

The position power can be built and enhanced by some of the factors proposed by Whetten and Cameron. These factors are:

- ***Centrality:*** Centrality refers to the activities that are most central to the work flow of the organization. If the information filters through the manager thus giving the manager some say in the work of many work subunits, then the manager has acquired some positional power. For example, the manager of the accounting department or finance department is central in approving expenses and making payments of all departments in the firm, giving the manager an extra power base to affect the behaviour of other departments.
- ***Scarcity:*** When resources are scarce but critical to organizational operations and there is a struggle for acquiring these resources, then the winner of the struggle acquires power. When unlimited resources are available in capital, space or support staff, there will hardly be any reason for spending energies in pursuit of power for such power would have no

influence on the smooth functioning of the organization. It is only when cutbacks occur in these resources that the differences in power will become apparent. According to a study conducted in a large University, Salanick and Pfeffer found that the power of academic departments was associated with their ability to obtain funds from research grants and other outside sources and this was more critical to their power than was the number of undergraduates taught by the department.

13.2.1 Sources of Power

A person in an organizational setting can have power from two sources. These are interpersonal sources and organizationally based structural sources in Figure 13.1.

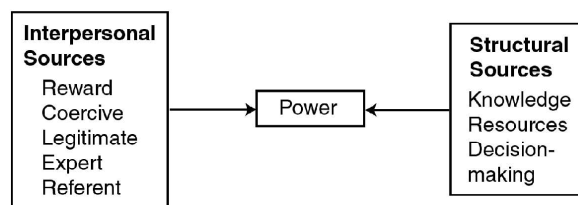


Fig. 13.1 *Sources of Power*

Source: Based upon Don Hellriegel, John W. Slocum and Richard W. Woodman, 'Organizational Behavior', West Publishing, 1986, p-462.

These sources are explained in further details as follows:

Interpersonal Sources of Power

These sources of power focus on the interpersonal relationships between manager and the subordinates. French and Raven have identified five general bases of power which are based upon interpersonal relationships. These are:

Legitimate power: This is the power that is vested in the leadership to take certain actions. For example, a manager's position in the organization gives him the power over his subordinates in his specific area of responsibility. The subordinates will favourably respond to a manager's directives because they recognize and acknowledge the managers legitimate rights to prescribe certain behaviours expected of subordinates. Legitimate power is similar to formal authority so that it can be created, granted, changed or withdrawn by the formal organizations.

The structure of the organization also identifies the strength of the legitimate authority by position location. Higher level positions exercises more power than lower level positions in a classical hierarchical organizational structure. For highly mechanistic organizations, the legitimate power for each position is closely specified. In more democratic type of situations the superiors and subordinates may be on equal footing.

Similarly, to some degree, legitimate power can also be given by society to a particular leader, who has been elected by the populace. For example, the president of a country or an elected mayor of a city has certain power and authority.

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This power may also be culturally specified. In many cultures, children simply 'obey' their parents. In some other cultures, people of certain castes are highly respected. In the tribes of Africa and Middle East, the tribal chiefs have traditionally enjoyed the power and authority over their people. In India, old age brings with it the power to command respect.

Reward power: A second base of power is the extent to which one person has control over rewards that are valued by another. The greater the perceived values of such rewards, the greater the power. These rewards can be extrinsic in nature with tangible values. For examples, if a manager has total control over the pay his subordinates get and their work assignment as well as their promotions, then the manager can be considered to have a high level of reward power. Similarly, the chairman of a division in a college or a university holds considerable power in reappointments, tenures and promotions for the faculty of his division.

Reward power can extend beyond extrinsic rewards. It may include such subjective and intrinsic rewards as praise and recognition. If the subordinate is interested in acceptance and recognition of his contributions and the manager can provide such rewards, then this serves as an additional form of reward power.

Coercive power: On the other end of the reward power is the coercive power which is the ability to influence punishment. It reflects the extent to which a manager can deny desired rewards or administer punishment to control other people. The more sanctions a manger is able to bear upon others, the stronger is his coercive power. Some managers belittle the efforts of others in front of their peers and get away with it. To that degree, they possess the coercive power. The coercive power, which is the power to reprimand, demote or fire subordinates for unsatisfactory performance is seldom exercised because of the cost involved in the form of employee resentment and hostility.

Expert power: It is more of a personal power, rather than organizational power and is the ability to control another person's behaviour through the possession of knowledge and expertise that the other person needs and does not possess himself. For example, a subordinate will obey the superior simply because the subordinates believes that he superior 'knows' what is to be done and how it is to be done. Similarly, the computer experts who are designing a computer information system for a company will dictate the design and operations of the system and their expertise power will be accepted.

Similarly, we generally follow our doctor's or our accountants advice and instructions because we believe in their ability and knowledge in those specified areas. Thus if the subordinates view their leaders as competent, they would follow their leaders.

Referent power: It is also known as charismatic power and is based upon the attraction exerted by one individual over another. It is more of a personal nature rather than a positional nature in the sense that this power is not designated or acquired because of a position but because of a position but because of personal

'charisma' so that the 'followers' would like to associate themselves with the 'leaders'. The stronger the association, the stronger is the power. This association means that the subordinate would obey his superior because he wants to behave in the same manner as the superior and the subordinate identifies himself with the superior. This referent power also extends to film stars and celebrities whose followers and fans follow what the celebrities do.

Structural and Situational Bases of Power

The five bases of power that we have discussed relate to interpersonal power that the managers have over their subordinates. In addition, there is another dimension of power. This dimension involves structural and situational sources within the organization and include knowledge as power, resources as power, decision making as power and link with others as power.

Knowledge as power: All organization use information to operate. Thus individuals or groups who possess knowledge critical to the attainment of organizational goals and objectives have power. The correct utilization of information is very important for effective organizational operations. Accordingly, people who are in a position to control the information itself or the flow of information about current operations or future events and plans have enormous power to influence the behaviour of others.

Resources as powers: Resources are the backbone of organizations. They simply cannot survive without the adequate availability of all the necessary resources. These resources include capital, personnel, equipment, raw materials, customers and so on. Any person who can provide resources that are critical to the organization acquires such power. Thus, suppliers of monopolized scarce raw materials can dictate their own prices. The old saying that 'he who has the gold makes the rules' sums up the idea that resources are power.

Decision-making as power: The authority to make decisions or the ability to influence the decision makers are both sources of power. The decision-making power does not necessarily rest with the final decision maker. Even though the decision makers act, the real power may be with those who strongly influence the decision maker. For example, when you buy a particular car on the advice of a friend, it is the friend who held the power to buy the car, even if you acted upon it. Similarly, a task force formed to study an issue and give recommendations may not have the power to make the final decision, but the decision maker is more likely to be influenced by the task force recommendations. Thus, the task force holds the decision making power in a subtle way.

13.2.2 Power Centre in Organization

Mintzberg's (1983) theory of organizational power is built on the premise that "organizational behaviour is a power game in which various players, called influencers, seek to control the organization's decisions and actions." The three basic conditions for the exercise of power are:

- Some source or basis of power coupled with
- The expenditure of energy in a
- Politically skilful way when necessary.

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There are five possible bases of power according to Mintzberg: first, control of a resource; second, control of a technical skill; and third, control of a body of knowledge. All these bases are critical to the organization. The fourth basis of power could be legal prerogatives—being given exclusive rights or privileges to impose choices. The fifth basis of power is access to those who have power based on the first four bases. In addition to the bases of power, the influencer must have the will and the skill to use power. There are many potential influencers in and around an organization, such as board of directors, managers, the top executives, the employees, the unions, suppliers, and regulators.

In summary, these four views of the sources of power in organizations are remarkably similar. Power stems from the possession or mediation of desired resources. The resources may vary from the ability to reward and punish, being in control of critical skills, knowledge or information, being able to solve critical problems or exigencies, or anything that creates dependence of one actor or set of actors on another.

The three basic sources of leadership power are role power (the power that goes with the position), personality power (power generated by the force of the individual), and knowledge power (power that derives from special skills or knowledge).

1. Using Role Power

In most cases, the power attached to a leadership position is more potent than the person who occupies it realizes. For example, the position of the administrative head of a country has great power—no matter who occupies it. To a lesser degree, the same is true for corporate presidents, police chiefs, and other government officials.

Role power is, generally, accepted without question. People, however, do not react well to leaders who abuse power. A boss who betrays his employees' trust will soon find himself without followers. As a leader, one should live with role power comfortably and use it gracefully. It should be recognized but neither overplayed nor underplayed.

2. Using Personality Power

Personality power becomes important in positions of leadership that are inherently weak in role power. When a power personality occupies a power role, we have the possibility of outstanding leadership, provided that both power sources are used effectively.

3. Using Knowledge Power

When a leader has special skills and knowledge to back up the leadership role she occupies, an additional source of power is generated. This is knowledge power. People like to be led by those who know the answers. They look up to those with expertise, giving them more authority than they would otherwise possess. Knowledge—real or imagined—is power.

One base of power may affect the value of the others. For instance, those managers who reward subordinates may be well liked and may have substantial referent power. On the other hand, those managers who use coercive methods may be liked less and may have less referent power. Sometimes, an attempt to influence can increase the operation of one power base but may decrease or even negate another. For example, coercion may lead to public compliance but may cause the agent to be disliked and lead to private non-compliance.

13.3 IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT

The desire to make a favourable impression on others is universal. In one way or another, we all do things to attempt to control how other people perceive us, often attempting to get them to think of us in the best light possible. Impression management refers to the process used by individuals to control the impression others form of them. Therefore, it would be a mistake to think that the person who is at the receiving end of being evaluated is passive and the only person active in the process is the perceiver. The employment interview is an organizational context in which this process is at work (Fletcher 1989).

The impression that prospective employers form may be based on subtle behaviours, such as how we dress and speak, or more elaborate acts, such as announcing our accomplishments (Giacalone and Rosenfeld 1989). It may be the result of calculated efforts to get others to think of us in a certain way or be the passive, unintended effects of our actions (Greenberg 1990). Impression management might involve direct attempts to make ourselves look better—through self-enhancing behaviour (such as improving one's appearance, and namedropping, claiming association with highly regarded others, as well as attempts to make others feel better about themselves) and other enhancing behaviour (such as by flattering them, and showing your approvals for the things they say) (Fiske and Neuberg 1990).

The things people do to create favourable impressions also have beneficial effects on their relationships with others. For example, it has been found that supervisors feel better towards those subordinates who are successful at cultivating positive impressions (such as by using self-enhancing and other enhancing tactics)

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than those who are less skilled at doing so. Not surprisingly, supervisors also enjoy friendlier and more open communication links with such individuals (Wayne and Kacmar 1991). Similarly, it has been found that subordinates who engage in impression management are more liked by their supervisors, and such liking, in turn, enhances the quality of social interaction between them (Wayne and Ferris 1990).

The target person could set out to generate a favourable impression through a variety of tactics. Rosenfeld, Giacalone and Riordan (1995) viewed these tactics as:

- ***Name-dropping***—to create an impression that one is well connected and an expert as a means to support one's judgement;
- ***Disclosing obstacles***—to stress the real or imaginary barriers that one has removed in the past to bring about a successful outcome, as if to say that is what you would expect from an able performer;
- ***Doing favours***—to either appear to do something concrete to help the person one is trying to impress or appear to do so in order to receive a favourable evaluation;
- ***Flattery***—to convey nice things about the person one is trying to influence (e.g. the interviewer);
- ***Opinion conformity***—to back the opinion or views of the person one is trying to impress so as to get her on your side;
- ***Playing dumb***—to give the impression that one cannot do certain tasks, in the hope that one can avoid them, thereby creating the space to do things one really likes;
- ***Playing safe***—to give the impression that one is not prone to making mistakes.

It would be foolish to overestimate the power of impression management; eventually the person lacking credibility may not be able to present the correct image all the time and is exposed. Others may lack the personality characteristics to project the right image. But it is suggested that if the target personality presentation of the self is in line with his self-concept, the perceivers (e.g. interviewers) could be convinced of the substance of the image projected (Swann and Ely 1984). Apparently, the way we see ourselves (self-perception) is crucial when arriving at a conclusion about what others think of us (Kenny and DePaulo 1993).

Impressions can also be made by organizations as a whole. The impression an organization makes on people can have a considerable effect on the way it relates to it in the context of job recruitment, not only do candidates want to make good impressions on prospective employees, but employees want their job offer to be accepted by the best candidates.

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Check Your Progress

1. Define coercive power.
2. What are the three basic sources of leadership power?
3. What is the impression that prospective employers form based on?

13.4 ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS AND ITS NATURE

Organizational politics is different from the government-oriented politics in that it emphasises the role of a person in an organization. Employees have a certain role to perform in every organization. When this role is exercised to influence others, it becomes politics. In simple words, politics is the use of power to influence the decision-making process in an organization. The political system in an organization influences the behaviour of employees. The political system is decided based on how managers use their power in an organization. The power using process becomes the political system. The goal and organizational functions are also influenced by a set of political systems or process of the organization. The disadvantages and advantages of political process are also discussed. For example, leaking out secret information is the disadvantage of the political process. There may be legitimate and illegitimate behaviour. Legitimate behaviour refers to the advantage of a political system. It may be a chain of command, forming coalitions, adherence to rules and regulations. On the contrary, illegitimate political behaviour violates the rules and regulations, e.g. damaging the property, making adverse remarks about the managers.

Definition

Politics in an organization is a factual reality. An organization is full of diverse values, goals and interests. There are potential conflicts in every organization. Resource allocation creates conflicts. Interests, goals and ego conflicts are sources of politics. People try to achieve these points for self-satisfaction, which creates politicking activities. The politicking may be overt and covert. Employees influenced by outsiders' behaviour such as that of a political leader is an example of overt behaviour. The internal factors creating politicking activities are known as covert politics. Apart from the covert and overt factors creating political activities, individual and organizational factors are more important politicking.

Factors Creating Political Behaviour

Individual factors include high march, internal locus of control perceived job designs, expectations and self-monitoring. Personality traits, personal needs and other factors create political behaviour. Employees interested in self-monitoring and high march are engaged in political behaviour. Self-monitors are more sensitive to social cues and thus are skilled in political behaviour. They maintain alliances with powerful

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people, manipulate information, make a quick showing, avoid decisive engagement and take counsel with caution for power acquisition. Many employees adapt the divide and rule policy, embrace the powerful and demolish the weak and wait, see and then attack policies for acquiring power.

Employees having a higher locus of control can manipulate situations in their favour. Similarly, high Machiavellian people can control power in their favour. People interested in power use politics to gain it for self-interest. Expectations of success of any action leads to politicking activities. Persons hoping for success in an organization resort to illegitimate means to gain power. Scarcity of skilled labour provides more political power even to the person who has scarce knowledge. Experienced and politically sound employees have more opportunities of increasing politics.

Organizational factors are more effective for creating politicking activities than individual factors because a large number of employees are taken into confidence for any activity. Organizational factors include role, situations and culture of an organization, resources utilisation, opportunities for promotion, trust, performance evaluation, impression management, defensive behaviour and ethical guidelines.

Role: The role played by cadre people influences the politicking activities because of their differences in opinion. Managers having a strong support create some problems. The difference of role fosters politicking functions in an organization. Role ambiguity of managers has a wide impact on the politics of an organization because the behaviour of employees is not clear in this case. Visibility and transparency will not create politics whereas their absence provides more chances of politicking activities.

Situation and culture: Certain situations and culture create politics. Cultural differences in an organization may encourage politicking activities. They may create a low trust, unclear performance and high pressure of work. Culture helps to develop employees and managers.

Resources utilisation: Resource utilisation emphasises the departmental goals for which the departmental heads want maximum resources for their department. This creates politics and some departments are given more favours than others. Employees and managers engage in political actions to safeguard the interests of their respective departments.

Opportunities for promotion: Promotion opportunities invite politics. Competition creates politics. Promotion avenues offer competition. People wish to gain favour by hook or crook and gain promotion. This influences the resultant decision.

Trust: A lack of trust creates politics. Illegitimate tactics are applied to influence the seers and peers. Absolute trust decreases the scope for politics. Trust reduces misunderstanding.

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Performance evaluation: The methods of performance evaluation have an impact on politics in an organization. The time of performance and the delay in appraisal depend on the political system. Subjective evaluation creates politics.

Impression management: Impression management relates to the perception by the employees about the management. Perception benefits both the employees and management. The management has to create an impression by which the employees are influenced. The impression management involves conformity excuses, apologies, acclaiming, flattery, favour, bias, etc. The management should avoid the impression of being insincere and dishonest. Uncertainty and ambiguity should be avoided.

Defensive behaviour: Employees generally avoid action and blame others for any defects. They resort to reactive and protective style to defend their behaviour. The over action is avoided by conforming to the roles, policies and precedents. Passing the responsibility to someone else is also exercised. The strategy of helplessness is used for avoiding unwanted tasks. Apersonalisation is used to avoid certain behaviour. In this case, the persons other than the defaulting persons are treated at fault and reprimanded for behaving properly. Stretching, smoothing and stalling are other techniques of defensive behaviour. Similarly, blame is avoided by buffing, playing safe, justifying, misrepresenting and escalation of commitment. Defensive behaviour includes avoiding change which refers to resisting change.

Avoiding action, blame and change are important components of defensive behaviour. Organizations are very cautious about defensive behaviour because it becomes a liability during the long run. People using defensiveness are unable to resort to any other strategies. They destroy their own capacities. Defensive behaviour is not desirable as it increases interpersonal conflicts, rigidity and stagnation.

Ethical guidelines: Ethical guidelines are used for reducing politicking behaviour. Self- interest is overpowered by organizational interests. Being unethical is an undesirable factor which should be avoided for evading politics. Unethical behaviour is discouraged by the organization as people are highly politicised by political behaviour.

13.4.1 Impact of Organizational Politics

Though it is virtually impossible to eliminate political behaviour in organizations, it is possible to contain it in such a manner as to limit its dysfunctional consequences. Politics when carried to the extreme can damage morale, create enemies, destroy loyalty, damper cooperative spirit and much time and energy is spent planning attacks and counterattacks which are detrimental to organizational health. Accordingly, combating politics must be undertaken by the top management primarily by such guidelines that would limit political plays. Some of the steps that can be taken for purpose of constraining political activity are summarized as follows:

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Positive role model: It is said corruption begins at the top and the lower level people will be corrupt and play politics only when such tactics are accepted or ignored by the top management. Thus, if a manager plays political games, he is conveying a message to his subordinates that such conduct is acceptable. Accordingly, the top management must provide a positive and ethical role model themselves and make it clear to subordinates that such political manoeuvring will not be accepted which is detrimental to employee morale and organizational climate.

Open communication: Since political behaviour is a function of control over resources, information and lines of communication, open and honest communication is an effective techniques in constraining the effects of political behaviour. If the lines of communication are open to all and the necessary information is available to all including the information regarding the availability and allocation of scarce resources, then it would not be necessary to engage in political behaviour in order to acquire or control these resources.

Reduce uncertainty: Politics seems to be more prevalent when overall purposes and organizational goals are ambiguous and when expectations of subordinates are not clear and when organizational changes are not made known to all. These elements of uncertainty can provide grounds for political play. Thus political behaviour can be limited if such uncertainty can be reduced or eliminated. This can be done by giving well-defined assignments to all employees making it clear to them as to what the management expectations of the employees are relative to achievement of clearly defined organizational goals. Thus, participative decision making and making all relevant information known to all members of the organization at the appropriate time and helping them integrate their personal objectives with organizational objectives will reduce the necessity of political game play.

Study the political phenomenon: It is important that top management be aware of the psychology and philosophy of political behaviour. Simply being aware of the causes and techniques of political behaviour can minimize their effects. This knowledge could prepare the top management not only in combating political behaviour when it occurs but also in anticipating it and taking appropriate steps to avoid it from occurring. By being aware of such possibility, the management can take steps to stop such a coalition from forming or take appropriate measures to successfully confront such a coalition, should it form.

13.5 OVERCOMING NEGATIVE IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICTS

According to Thomas (1992), one can overcome interpersonal conflict in organizations in basically five ways. Figure 13.2 presents a model for understanding and comparing the five interpersonal conflict- handling strategies.

The styles are identified by their locations on two dimensions: (i) concern for self and (ii) concern for others. The desire to satisfy your own concerns depends

on the extent to which you are assertive or unassertive in pursuing personal goals. Your desire to satisfy the concerns of others depends on the extent to which you are cooperative or uncooperative.

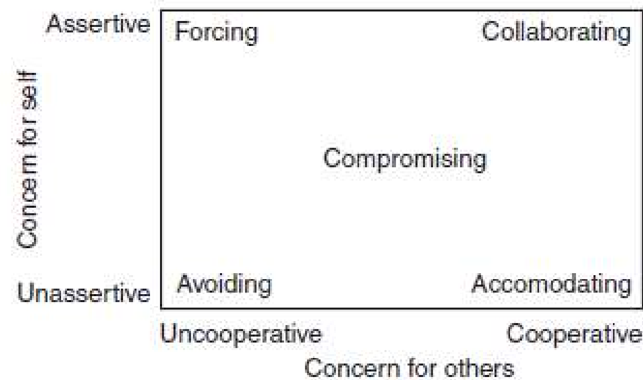


Fig. 13.2 *Interpersonal Conflict-Styles*

The five interpersonal conflict-handling styles represent various combinations of assertiveness and cooperation. Although there is a natural tendency towards one or two of these styles, the individual may use all of them as the context and the people involved change. For example, the style one uses to solve a conflict with a good friend will probably differ from the one used with a stranger after a minor car accident. The major styles are discussed now:

Avoiding Style

This enables a person to stay away from conflict, ignore disagreements, or remain neutral. This approach reflects an aversion to tension and frustrations and may involve a decision to let a conflict work itself out. Because ignoring important issues often frustrates others, the consistent use of the avoiding style usually results in unfair evaluation by others (Sorenson et al 1995).

This style may be desirable when:

- The issue is minor or only of passing importance and it is not worth the individual's time or energy to deal with the conflict.
- The individual does not have enough information to handle the conflict at that time.
- The individual's power is so less in relation to the other person's that there is no chance of causing change.
- Others can effectively resolve the conflict.
- The issue is symptomatic of other deeper issues. The individual may not be prepared to deal with these deeper and other complex issues. Therefore, it is better to avoid the issue for the moment and adopt a distant wait-and-see approach.

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Forcing or Dominating Style

It refers to assertive and uncooperative behaviours and represent a win–lose approach to interpersonal conflict. Those who use the forcing approach try to attain their own goals without concern for others. This style includes aspects of coercive power and dominance (Dana 2000). It may help a person achieve individual goals, but as with the avoiding style, forcing tends to result in an unfavourable evaluation by others.

Individuals who favour this style assume that conflict resolution means that one person must win and the other must lose. When handling conflict between subordinates or departments, forcing-style leaders may threaten or actually use demotion, dismissal, negative performance evaluations, or other punishments to gain compliance. When conflict occurs between peers, group members using the forcing style can try to get their own way by appealing to the leader.

The forcing style may be necessary in the following conditions:

- Emergencies require quick actions.
- Unpopular courses of action must be taken for long-term organizational effectiveness and survival, for example, cost cutting and dismissal of employees for unsatisfactory performance.
- A person needs to take action for self-protection and stop others from taking advantage of her.

Accommodating Style

This refers to cooperative and unassertive behaviour. Accommodation may represent an unselfish act, a long-term strategy to encourage cooperation by others, or submission to the wishes of others. While some favourably evaluate individuals using the accommodating style, others may perceive them as weak and submissive. When using the accommodating style, an individual can act as though the conflict will go away in time and can appeal for cooperation. The person will try to reduce tensions and stress by reassurance and support. This style shows concern for the emotional aspects of conflict but little interest in working on its substantive issues.

The accommodating style can be effective in the short run when:

- The individual is in a potentially explosive emotional-conflict situation.
- Maintaining harmony and avoiding disruptions are important in the short run.
- Conflicts are based primarily on the personalities of individuals and cannot be easily resolved.
- The issue is far more important to the other party.
- You want the other party to learn from their mistakes of insisting on their ways.
- You want to earn social credit by giving in at that moment, so that you can cash in on the credit of being reasonable at a more opportune time.

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Collaborating Style

It refers to strong, cooperative, and assertive behaviours. It is the win–win approach to interpersonal conflict handling. A person using collaboration desires to maximize joint results. People who use this style tend to:

- See conflict as natural, helpful, or even leading to a creative solution if properly handled.
- Exhibit trust in others.
- Recognize that when conflict is resolved to the satisfaction of all, it should lead to commitment to the solution.

An individual who uses the collaborating style is often seen as dynamic and is evaluated favourably by others. With this style, conflict is recognized openly and evaluated by all who are concerned. Sharing, examining, and assessing the reasons for the conflict should lead to the development of an alternative that effectively resolves it and is fully acceptable to everyone involved (Blanchard and O'Connor 1997). Collaboration is most practical when there is:

- Sufficient interdependence to justify expending the extra time and energy needed to solve individual differences.
- Sufficient parity in power among individuals so that they feel free to interact candidly, regardless of their formal superior–subordinate status.
- Potential for mutual benefits, especially in the long run, in resolving the dispute through a win–win process.
- Sufficient organizational support for investing the necessary time and energy in resolving disputes in this manner.
- A framework, especially those set by the top management, for encouraging or discouraging collaboration, through norms, rewards, and punishments for the organization.

Compromising Style

This refers to behaviours at an intermediate level of cooperation and assertiveness. People using this style engage in a give-and-take strategy and can make a series of concessions. Compromising style is widely used and commonly accepted as a means of resolving conflict. An individual who compromises with others tends to be favourably evaluated. Explanations that favour the compromising style include the following facts:

- It reflects a pragmatic way of handling conflicts.
- It helps maintain good relations for the future.

Unlike the collaborating style, the compromising style does not maximize mutual satisfaction. Compromise achieves moderate but partial satisfaction for each person. This style is appropriate when:

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- Agreements enable each person to be better off, or at least not worse off, than if no agreements were reached.
- Achieving a total win–win agreement is not possible.
- Conflicting goals or opposing interests block agreement on a person's proposal.

Check Your Progress

4. List the organizational factors creating political behaviour in organizations.
5. What is forcing or dominating style?

13.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Coercive power is defined as the use of force to get an employee to follow an instruction or order, where power comes from one's ability to punish the employee for noncompliance.
2. The three basic sources of leadership power are role power (the power that goes with the position), personality power (power generated by the force of the individual), and knowledge power (power that derives from special skills or knowledge).
3. The impression that prospective employers form may be based on subtle behaviours, such as how we dress and speak, or more elaborate acts, such as announcing our accomplishments (Giacalone and Rosenfeld 1989). It may be the result of calculated efforts to get others to think of us in a certain way or be the passive, unintended effects of our actions (Greenberg 1990).
4. Organizational factors creating political behaviour in organizations include role, situations and culture of an organization, resources utilization, opportunities for promotion, trust, performance evaluation, impression management, defensive behaviour and ethical guidelines.
5. Forcing or dominating style refers to assertive and uncooperative behaviours and represent a win–lose approach to interpersonal conflict.

13.7 SUMMARY

- Power differs from authority, in that authority is the right of decision and command and it is legitimate, approved by the organizational structure and is freely accepted by all.
- Power is defined as the 'possibility of imposing one's will on the behaviour of others'.

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- Generally, the power attached to a position is more potent than the person who occupies the position. For instance, the position of the president of the United States has great power, no matter who occupies it.
- The two broad types of power in an organizational setting stems from interpersonal sources and structural sources.
- The interpersonal sources of power are reward, coercive, legitimate, expert and referent. The structural sources of power are knowledge, resources and decision-making.
- The three basic sources of leadership power are role power (the power that goes with the position), personality power (power generated by the force of the individual), and knowledge power (power that derives from special skills or knowledge).
- The desire to make a favourable impression on others is universal. In one way or another, we all do things to attempt to control how other people perceive us, often attempting to get them to think of us in the best light possible.
- Impression management refers to the process used by individuals to control the impression others form of them.
- Organizational politics is different from the government-oriented politics in that it emphasizes the role of a person in an organization. Employees have a certain role to perform in every organization.
- Politics in an organization is a factual reality. An organization is full of diverse values, goals and interests.
- Apart from the covert and overt factors creating political activities, individual and organizational factors are more important politicking.
- Individual factors include high march, internal locus of control perceived job designs, expectations and self-monitoring. Personality traits, personal needs and other factors create political behaviour.
- Organizational factors are more effective for creating politicking activities than individual factors because a large number of employees are taken into confidence for any activity.
- According to Thomas (1992), one can overcome interpersonal conflict in organizations in basically five ways.
- The styles are identified by their locations on two dimensions: (i) concern for self and (ii) concern for others.

13.8 KEY WORDS

- **Assertiveness:** It is a quality of being self-confident in a way such that one has the potential to speak up for himself in a way that is honest and respectful.

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- **Coalition:** It denotes the coming together of individuals or groups/teams for a specific period with the objective of achieving a common goal.
- **Politics:** It is the use of power to influence the decision-making process in an organization.
- **Culture:** It refers to the ideas, customs, and social behaviour of a particular people or society.

13.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. How does personality influence political behaviour in organizations?
2. State the limitations of power.
3. What is referent power?

Long Answer Questions

1. Analyse the impact of organizational politics.
2. Discuss the sources of power.
3. Examine the tactics to generate a favourable opinion.
4. Explain how one can overcome the negative impact of organizational conflicts.

13.10 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 14 COMMUNICATION AND KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

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Structure

14.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about organizational power, politics and impression management. In this unit, the discussion will turn towards organizational communication. Simply put, the act of transferring information from one place to another is known as communication. The word communication comes from the Latin word *communicare*, which means to share. Communication is of huge importance in all aspects of human life. One can communicate using words of a language or through non-verbal gestures or signs. In the communication process, a message or communication is sent by the sender through a communication to a receiver or to numerous receivers. The final section of the unit will discuss knowledge management.

14.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the meaning, function and types of communication
- Describe the process of communication
- Examine the knowledge management process

14.2 MEANING, FUNCTION AND DIRECTION OF COMMUNICATION

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Communication is the modus operandi of social and commercial intercourse. It is communication which gets the world going. It is the lifeblood of any group or organization. The communication process encompasses men, women and children as individuals and also members of a group, society, community or organization. One cannot visualize a world where men and women do not communicate. Communication keeps the world going.

Communication is relevant not only to human beings, but also to other living beings. It is the most important link that connects all living organisms. Communication takes place not only among people, but also between people and animals and between animals. The dog owner, the horse rider, the ringmaster in the circus and the fortune-teller communicate with their animals and birds.

It is the ability of mankind to communicate across barriers and beyond boundaries that has ushered the progress of mankind. It is the ability of fostering speedy and effective communication around the world that has shrunk the world and made ‘globalization’ a reality. Communication has had a vital role to play in ensuring that people belonging to a particular country or a cultural or linguistic group interact with and relate to people belonging to other countries or cultural and linguistic groups.

Communication is at once the cause and consequence of a powerful world order. Development of varied and sophisticated means of communication over a period of time has brought human beings across the globe closer and has facilitated speedy and effective transmission of thoughts and ideas. The expanse or reach of communication, therefore, is worldwide and truly encompasses human life in all its facets and endeavours. It galvanizes action among individuals, organizations, societies and the world community at large.

Communication adds meaning to human life. It helps build relationships and fosters love and understanding. It enriches our knowledge of the universe and makes living worthwhile. Imagine life without various tools of communication—newspapers, books, letters, television and mobile telephone—and the expanse and significance of communication becomes crystal clear. Understanding the power of communication is imperative for the success of any human endeavour.

Need for Communication

Sociologists describe human beings as social animals. As members of society, they have to constantly interact with their fellow beings. They have feelings, emotions, likes and dislikes—all of which they have to convey. In other words, whatever the environment in which they are placed, they have to build links and establish relationships. The need for communication arises from their desire to express themselves in a meaningful manner. As stated earlier, communication is the modus

operandi of social intercourse. As a member of the family, a social group and as part of a work-team, they need to communicate with others.

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Just as they are social beings, human beings are also emotional beings. They have certain thoughts and emotions. Human heart generates feelings. Further, just as human beings are social beings, and emotional beings, they are equally importantly, rational beings. They are endowed with the faculty of thinking. They have intelligence and brainpower. The human mind is a very potent force. There is always a constant urge to give expression to what the mind generates. In order to give a meaningful expression to thoughts, ideas, reasoning, creativity and intelligence, human beings resort to communication.

The need for communication arises from the need to emote, to interact, and to express one's ideas and thoughts and the need to relate and connect. The need or the desire to communicate, however, varies from person to person, depending on time and context. There are times and occasions when a person is extremely communicative. There are also times and occasions when he or she prefers to remain silent. Be that as it may, most of our waking hours are spent in communication. Such communication may take place in several ways—listening, speaking, reading and writing.

It is a well-known fact that we spend a major part of our waking hours in communicating. In the past, researchers have noted that we spend about 45 per cent of the time in listening, about 30 per cent in speaking, about 15 per cent in reading and about 10 per cent in writing. This was in the past when the communication technology was in its nascent stage. But the subsequent developments in communication technology leading to the emergence of Internet, email, SMS, Instant Messaging, video-conferencing, e-books, etc. have added a new dimension to the simple acts of reading, writing, speaking and listening. All the same, communication in its myriad forms continues to be the major pre-occupation of men, women and children.

Evolution of Communication

The art of communication is as old as mankind itself. It is, in fact, older than the written word or even the spoken word. Human beings learnt to communicate much before they learnt to speak, read or write. That is why communication is not unique to human beings. Communication encompasses all living beings and pervades the animal world as well. Birds and animals also communicate. The sounds they make carry meaning. The chirping of the birds, the roaring of the lions, the hissing of the snakes and the whining of the dogs are often meant to be expressive.

Much before they learnt to speak, human beings had learnt to express themselves through sounds, gestures and actions. If we observe closely, we can notice that we continue to use these methods to communicate even to this day. It is not that those who cannot speak, read or write cannot communicate. A visually challenged person or an illiterate person, resorts to oral and non-verbal communication; while a person with a speech or hearing disability resorts to gesticulations and lip reading.

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The art of communication has evolved over the years. It goes back in time to the biblical era, mythological times and even to the prehistoric period. People learnt to express themselves even before they evolved fully into their present form. From sounds, grunts, actions, signs, gestures and gesticulations to the spoken word and thereafter to the world of reading, writing and modern and sophisticated methods of communication, it has been a long yet fascinating and rewarding journey through time. As they progressed on this fascinating journey, human beings learnt to interpret sounds, understand actions and use signs and gesticulations. Messages were conveyed through sounds, cries and drumbeats. The spoken word added a new dimension to the world of learning. Sages and saints of yore learnt to pass on sacred verses and holy texts through word of mouth. Thereafter, human beings learnt to use symbols and pictures to convey messages. Early writings were on stones and leaves. As human beings progressed, communication evolved further. The invention of printing, as we all know, revolutionized the process of communication. In terms of its reach, the written word signified a quantum leap. Side by side, various inventions made possible the recording of the spoken word and its transmission, irrespective of time and distance. Gradually, the emergence of new media added new dimensions to the world of communication. Advancements in technology further enabled storage and retrieval of oral and written records in an effective, time-saving and cost-efficient manner.

Objectives of Communication

The objectives and functions of communication are inter-related. Communication could have many objectives depending upon the group and context. Communication within the family, in a classroom, in a theatre, in a church, in a war field, in a seminar and in the boardroom has different objectives. The objectives are defined depending upon the group and the purpose to be achieved. Each of these groups has a different set of goals and objectives.

Communication aims at sub-serving those goals. In each of these groups, the dominant objective of communication would be to inform, connect, educate, entertain, motivate, provoke, integrate, reassure and persuade, as the case may be. Communication is thus the means to an end. Communication is largely goal-oriented and the objective of any personal communication would depend upon the person or the group one is addressing and the purpose or object one has in mind.

Let us now look at the objectives of communication in business organizations. It is a process common to every business, whatever be its primary function. Business organizations exist for the purpose of meeting specific needs of the community in which they operate. Every business organization sets its goals and objectives in relation to the specific need it aims to fulfil. Every organization uses resources, including human resources to function effectively, and also targets specific clients and markets. Businesses are often associations of people coming together for specific purposes. It has people within and it also addresses people outside the organization. The activities of any organization require both people within and

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people outside to act, interact, reach, share, exchange and get across to each other so that specific objectives are accomplished in an effective manner. The word 'business' connotes a commercial motive. As distinct from a charitable or religious organization, any business organization is driven by a profit motive. This implies that the organization would like to ensure that its objectives are achieved with the optimum utilization of resources like time, money and effort. The communication system that is put in place within the organization should, therefore, address and meet these objectives.

Since business organizations are multi-disciplinary in nature, communication encompasses wide areas and is inter-disciplinary in approach. Large organizations are described as networks of interdependent relationships. The objectives, activities and inter-relationships of a business organization necessitate communication to subserve its many diverse objectives.

Inform

The first and foremost objective of any communication is to inform. In today's world, information is power. Communication brings power through information. The dissemination of information covers a wide range of areas, both internal and external. People within the organization have to be kept informed about the organizational goals, objectives, procedures, processes, systems, plans, priorities and strategies. Equally important is the objective of ensuring effective external communication—with customers, prospects, competitors, suppliers and the public, about products, services, plans, happenings, events and achievements. The information needs within the organization take on different nomenclatures—market-related information, product-related information, client-related information, employee information, executive information and management information.

Educate

Another objective of communication in an organization is to educate, i.e., to disseminate knowledge and develop skills and attitudes among the people working in the organization. There is also a need to familiarize them with the systems, procedures and processes. This process of education may extend to customers as well. This may be done through product literature, publicity, presentations and demonstrations.

Train

Communication is an integral component of any training program. Business organizations need to train people to achieve proficiency in specific skills. They have to provide working knowledge and attitudinal inputs through training programs to employees at various hierarchical levels. Training sessions involve teaching, instruction, demonstration, practice and discussion. The process of communication is integral to each of these.

Motivate

People in any business organization have to be motivated to pursue goals and achieve higher levels of performance. High levels of morale and motivation are a

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must to ensure high levels of productivity and efficiency on a sustainable basis. Communication provides the means to keep the motivation levels high. Talks, lectures, films, meetings, workshops and non-verbal messages are among the means used to motivate people.

Integrate

Large business organizations have different business units, departments and territorial divisions. Each of them pursues different goals, sub-goals and target sections. Communication provides the means for an integrated approach in pursuing organizational goals. Effective communication is a must to ensure that people working in different functional and geographical areas are integrated into well-knit teams that eschew working at cross purposes and continue to achieve organizational goals as envisaged. Communication binds together people working for a common objective and helps team building. Communication is of particular relevance in conflict resolution.

Relate and Connect

Good business relationships are a must for the continued success of any business organization. It is communication that provides the means for building and nurturing mutually beneficial relationships. These relationships are both internal and external. They may be among and/or between employees, supervisory staff, top management, customers, suppliers, other players, press and other media. As part of the larger community, progressive organizations make it a point to relate themselves with the community at large. It demonstrates that they are a sharing and caring organization. All this is achieved through well-organized communication strategies.

Promote

Promotional efforts are a must for any organization to fully achieve its objectives. One of the Ps of marketing (the others being Product, Price and Placement), promotion relates to various activities such as advertising, publicity, public relations and communication, which aim at customer information, customer education, customer communication and customer retention. In the marketing concept, the customer is said to move from stage to stage till the transaction is completed. They move progressively from the state of awareness of the need for a product to the knowledge of the product and thereafter to a state of product preference. The needs of the customers develop into effective demand for products, resulting in the purchase of the product or availing of the service. Promotional aspects of the service are particularly relevant in a service industry like banking or insurance, where the product, i.e., the service, cannot be readily ‘seen’. Financial service providers essentially sell benefits. For this, they have to organize effective promotional measures, which seek to inform, educate, persuade and actualize the clients/markets. Communication constitutes the basic plank on which promotional strategies are built.

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Entertain

Every business is not necessarily a serious business. Even serious businesses are not 'serious' all the time. Whatever may be the nature of business, there is a time for entertainment. Communication facilitates entertainment. It facilitates social bonding and brings in lighter moments that help in releasing tension, fostering camaraderie and getting rid of negative feelings. Humour, when used effectively, can play a vital role in fostering positive behaviour in business organizations. In the entertainment industry, communication has a much bigger role to play. Communication can serve to achieve the objective of purposeful entertainment.

Facilitates Decision Making

Decision making constitutes an important function for any business organization. Well thought out decisions, quickly taken, lead to better results. Such decision making is spread across all the functional areas—personnel, marketing, accounts, production and maintenance. Day in and day out, people in organizations keep taking decisions at various hierarchical levels. People at higher levels in the organization command respect depending upon their decision-making abilities. Any such decision making, however, depends on the availability of adequate and timely inputs. It calls for facts, figures, analysis, deliberation, clarification, confirmation and evaluation. Communication—both oral and written—facilitates decision making in any business organization.

Helps Networking

Today's business world is highly networked. Networking means a closely connected group of people. People need to connect with each other, not only within their organizations, but among themselves as well. Progressive organizations are inter-connected organizations and lay much stress on networking. They invest in networking systems where a number of computers and other devices are connected together so that the equipment and information can be shared. Networking facilitates easy flow of ideas, thoughts, policies and decisions. At their individual level too, people need to network themselves so as to exchange ideas and information. Networking at the individual level means connecting with and being in touch with other people who may be useful, both personally and professionally. Any such networking takes place through the medium of communication.

The objectives of communication, it must be emphasized, are dynamic and ever-changing. Depending upon the nature and functions of the organization, the range of people it deals with, and the sensitivities involved, the process of communication assumes new dimensions. In order to caution, counsel, persuade, clarify, elicit support, reprimand, organize, apprise, evaluate and achieve numerous other objectives, people in organizations resort to communication. Business organizations today function in an extremely dynamic context. Nothing ever remains the same for long. There are mergers and acquisitions, joint ventures, high employee turnover, low customer loyalty, move towards corporate governance, outsourcing,

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paperless offices and flexible work hours. All these developments have had their impact on the conventional methods of organizational communication.

Inasmuch as organizations themselves are adapting to changes in their operating environment and are facing new challenges, the contours of business communication will have to undergo a change. Communication systems, concepts and approaches will have to cope with new demands on business and there is a constant need to review the adequacy of existing methods and practices. Communication is essentially a support system for any business. With every change in the profile of business, the process of communication has to see refinements. Let us take an illustration. Till recently, a supervisor in an organization would consider having a 'long chat' with an employee whose productivity had declined or had started showing indifference to work. The typical scene has undergone a noteworthy change. Today, there may not be much of an opportunity to have a long, focused person-to-person 'chat.' With flexible working, outsourcing and limitations of time, new approaches will have to be found. Although internet 'chatting' facility may be available in some places, the advantages of person-to-person verbal communication are certainly not there. Every new situation translates into a need for new approach to communication. To cope with new situations and emerging challenges in business, people associated with the process of communication will have to be necessarily creative and innovative.

The objectives of communication, both internal and external, thus cover multifarious facets of organizational functioning. Within the organization, it covers varied functions such as planning, directing, controlling, coordinating, reviewing, monitoring and staffing. It facilitates appropriate feedback so vital for decision making and relationship building. Marketing, selling, goal-setting, employee counselling, team-building, performance highlighting, image-building, morale-building and community orientation are all valid objectives which communication seeks to achieve in an organizational context. Communication supports every business function.

Importance and Nature of Business Communication

The importance of business communication in today's inter-linked global economy is widely appreciated. Effective communication is at the heart of any business. Businesses deal with people and communication serves as a vital link in connecting people. Business organizations that underestimate the crucial role of communication do so at their peril. It is also well recognized that every communication is not necessarily effective. In real-life business situations, there are everyday instances of communication failure. The messages delivered are not what are intended. The messages understood are not what are conveyed. Messages often get distorted, diluted or misunderstood. Every organization, therefore, not only needs to recognize the importance of communication, but also should put in place adequate efforts and proper systems to make communication, both internal and external, effective and result oriented. Successful business communication is not automatic or mere

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happenstance. It needs time, effort and constant attention across all organizations to ensure that communication becomes effective.

Effective communication skills are among the most essential competencies in any aspiring manager's skill set. It is well understood in modern day business organizations that in the long run, soft skills are more important than technical skills. Soft skills include communication, time management, team work, negotiation and conflict resolution, assertiveness and business etiquette. Communication, however, tops the list of soft skills that managers need to possess. Important as they are, communication and other soft skills are also the hardest to acquire and the most difficult to practice. Nevertheless, like other skills, communication skills too can be mastered and practiced with ease through constant learning and application.

Given the importance of communication for any business, business organizations are always on the lookout for good communicators. The need for good communicators is particularly strong in business organizations in the service industry where services are delivered through people-to-people interactions. These organizations also put in place their own systems for improving the communication skills of their employees.

The nature of communication in business is quite diverse. In large organizations, the flow of communication is both internal and external and encompasses numerous stakeholders. Such communications could be personal or professional, formal or informal, written or oral, upward or downward or lateral or one-way or interactive. Communication involves the act of sharing ideas, opinions, thoughts, strategies, findings, concepts, attitudes, perceptions, perspectives and a wide array of communication needs. It could be individual-to-individual, individual-to-group or even group-to-group communication. The method of business communication could again take varied forms—written or verbal or non-verbal. Letters and memos, reports and notices, speeches and presentations, signals and gestures and a host of such means are used in business communication. Depending on the nature of communication, its transmission takes place through e-mail, fax, courier, telephone, teleconferencing, video conferencing and even films and other audio visual aids.

Given this diversity, a good communicator should have a clear understanding of the alternative types and methods of communication and the circumstances under which each one of them or a combination of them can be used. The communicator should also master the technical aspects of different methods of communication so that breakdowns and barriers are eliminated. Meetings, seminars, workshops, discussions, presentations, negotiations, strategy sessions and such other interactive fora translate into substantial man-hours involving executives, managers, specialists, guests and customers. Hence, every effort should be made to ensure that smooth flow of communication is facilitated through proper planning and organization. The nature and expanse of communication would depend on the

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nature of business and its reach across various stakeholders. In real-life situations, the needs and complexity of communication are quite diverse, depending on the type of industry, number of employees, geographical spread of the organization, level of sophistication and technology adoption, hierarchical structures, cross-cultural dimensions and such other relevant factors. Business communication is about sending and receiving messages and sharing information. Information is the key input for decision making and action taking. People in business organizations need to constantly gather information and take business-related decisions. Owners need to know about business growth and profitability. Managers need to know about market trends and organizational strengths. Employees need to know about production schedules. Customers need to know about product features. Almost everyone in business irrespective of his/her functional or geographical or hierarchical position needs to communicate. And those who can communicate effectively stand to gain, achieve better results and win over others.

Unlike what it used to be in the olden days, communication in modern day business organizations relies heavily on technology. The advent of mobiles, computers, networking systems, teleconferencing and video conferencing tools, fax machines and power point sets have added a new dimension to the world of communication. As businesses grow, expand and reach out, they need to rely more and more on such instruments and people well versed in operating such machines. Technology powers business communication. A good communicator, therefore, needs to not only master the varied business communication skills, but also needs to develop adequate knowledge of technology and its use in business communication.

14.2.1 Types of Communication

Communication can be categorized into different types depending upon the level at which it takes place, the direction it takes or by its very nature. Some of the commonly referred to types of communication are:

1. Personal and business communication
2. Internal and external communication
3. Upward and downward communication
4. Formal and informal communication
5. Lateral communication
6. Interactive communication
7. Mass communication
8. Global communication
9. Supportive communication
10. Social communication
11. Grapevine

The relevance and importance of each of these types of communication is discussed in the following paragraphs.

Personal Communication

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Personal communication concerns communication that takes place between any two individuals, be it in a family, group, community or even an organization. It takes place in an individual capacity and is characterized by informality. There is an element of privacy in all such communications. It can take the form of personal letters, personal telephone calls, conversations, one-to-one meetings or e-mail messages. It is private in nature and there is nothing official about it. Private and confidential conversation between two individuals is also referred to as *tete-a-tete.*

Business Communication

Business communication takes place to further the goals of a business. It takes place among business entities, in markets and market places, within organizations and between various groups of employees, owners and employees, buyers and sellers, service providers and customers, sales persons and prospects and also between people within the organization and press persons. All such communication impacts business. Done with care, such communication can promote business interests. Otherwise, it will portray the organization in poor light and may adversely affect the business interest. It helps the person concerned in moving up in the organizational hierarchy. Communication is the vehicle on which the business moves. The ability of the communicator to communicate effectively—verbally, non-verbally and in writing—is a prerequisite for organizational and business-related success.

Internal Communication

Internal communication takes place within the organization or group—among people within, among different groups of employees and between employers and employees. It could be oral or written, visual or audio-visual, formal or informal and upward or downward. Internal communication serves to inform, instruct, educate, develop, motivate, persuade, entertain, direct, control and caution people in the organization. When a personal letter is written at an official address, besides writing the name of the addressee, the envelope is superscribed ‘private’ or ‘confidential’ to convey the nature of communication. Knowledge, skills, goal orientation, sharing of corporate concerns, review and monitoring, performance appraisal, counselling and training are among the issues that internal communication addresses.

External Communication

Unlike internal communication, external communication flows outward. It addresses people outside the organization, like the prospective customers, competitors, public, press, media and the government. External communication can take place in various ways and through different channels. Letters, notices, brochures, demonstrations,

telephone calls, business meetings, press releases, press conferences, audio-visual presentations, publicity films, product launch events and advertisements are all examples of external communication. It is important to note that the external agency or person targeted through such communication quite often forms an image or impression based on such communication and it is, therefore, very necessary that adequate care is taken in making it clear, intelligible and appealing.

Upward Communication

Large organizations have different hierarchical levels or tiers. Banks, finance companies, insurance businesses, railways and such other people-oriented organizations have typically a three-tier or a four-tier structure. The process of communication to be complete and effective should encompass all these levels and tiers. Upward communication is one which moves upward, i.e., from the bottom to top levels in the hierarchy.

Any communication that moves from employees to supervisors, supervisors to managers, managers to executives and regional manager to general manager may be categorized as upward communication. Similarly, communication from branches to regional offices, regional offices to zonal offices, zonal offices to the head office is referred to as upward communication. Employee suggestions, market reports, performance reports, feedback on new products and requests for facilities or instructions are all examples of upward communication in the organizational context. Refer to Figure 14.1.

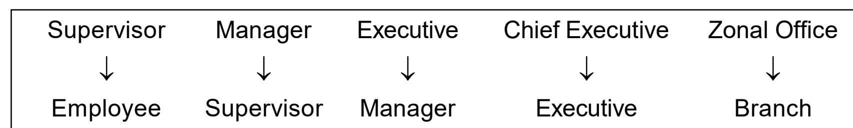


Fig. 14.1 *Upward Communication*

Downward Communication

Downward communication moves from top to the bottom, i.e., from the CEO downwards. It travels through senior executives to junior-level functionaries, from the controlling office to the branch, from the head of the division to the head of the unit. Corporate goals, business priorities, motivational letters, work-related instructions, newsletters, letters from the CEO/General Manager's desk are all typical examples of downward communication.

There may be some communication which would move both upward and downward. A typical example of this is performance budgeting, which is a two-way process. It is a top-to-bottom as well as bottom-to-top exercise. Refer to Figure 14.2.

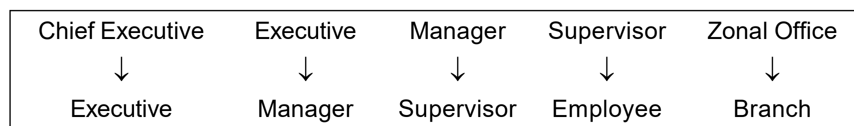


Fig. 14.2 *Downward Communication*

Formal Communication

To ensure communication on an ongoing basis, organizations develop formal systems. Staff meetings, union-management meetings, branch managers' conferences, periodical sales review meetings and customer meets are examples of forums that facilitate formal communication. Formal communication generally follows a well-defined hierarchical pattern and periodicity. Memos, circulars, instructions, guidelines, clarifications, agreements and reports are some of the channels that facilitate the flow of formal communication in business organizations.

Informal Communication

This type of communication takes place in an unstructured manner and outside the formal fora. There is an element of spontaneity in this communication. Informal communication works well in smaller, loosely knit organizations. It is used more often in situations where there are no rigid hierarchical tiers. While formal structure of communication is a must in large organizations, it is the informality that helps sustain goal orientation in small well-knit units. Informal communication takes place through chats, conversations and informal talks and the like.

Lateral Communication

Lateral communication generally takes place in an organization and is neither upward nor downward. It proceeds in a horizontal manner and takes place among equals and at peer level.

It may also be described as peer-level communication. Any communication that takes place, orally or in writing, from one branch head to the other, from one division head to the other, from one group head to the other, may be described as lateral communication. An important point worth noting in any such lateral communication is that there is not much difference in terms of the hierarchical levels or positions of the sender and the receiver. Refer to Figure 14.3.

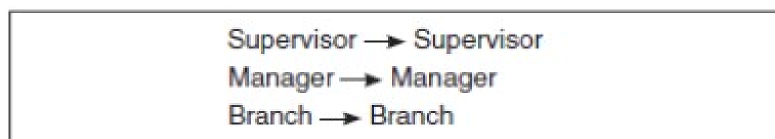


Fig. 14.3 *Lateral Communication*

Interactive Communication

Interactive communication is essentially a two-way process. It takes place through meetings, conferences, teleconferencing, multimedia presentations, group discussions and other such active two-way exchanges. Interactive communication is most appropriate when the message or subject is to be presented at length, e.g., in practical sessions, case study discussions and strategy formulation. When many

speakers are involved, there may be a need for a moderator who will facilitate effective flow of communication from different speakers.

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Mass Communication

Mass communication is distinctive in view of its scale. Essentially, it addresses a large mass of people. Public speaking, newspapers, magazines and journals, radio, television and dotcoms are channels of mass communication. Mass communication has developed into a specialized area of study. Each of these areas or channels calls for distinct skills. By its very nature, mass communication addresses a vast, well spread-out and heterogeneous group of people and, as such, special efforts will have to be made to sustain their interest and achieve the desired response. At the government level too, there is often a separate ministry or department of mass communication to deal with this functional area. Main branches of study relating to mass communication are public relations, advertising and publicity, journalism and digital media.

Global Communication

Global communication relates to communication that takes place beyond the national boundaries. Businesses operating in today's world are characterized by their global nature. Most businesses operate beyond the local or even national boundaries and are influenced by global trends. Businesses are known to operate in what is known as a global village. They often deal with customers, buyers, suppliers, service providers and even employees who are located in countries abroad. That is how global communication comes into play. Global communication has its own characteristics in terms of language, culture, etiquette and time factor, which have to be reckoned within the process of communication.

Supportive Communication

Supportive communication is a form of communication in which people are encouraged to speak freely and come out with their feelings and concerns. This happens when managers take time to listen, do not interrupt or pass judgments, make efforts to understand, and do not criticize and snub the other party. This type of communication calls for abundant patience and empathy, or the ability to understand the other person's feelings and experiences on the part of the manager or superior. Any person will freely share his or her inner feelings and concerns only when he or she feels that the listener is empathetic and interested. The supportive communicator has to create an environment where a person will feel encouraged to speak up without restraint.

Social Communication

As members of society, people everywhere will have to interact with others on a regular basis. Social communication takes place when people meet each other outside business and workplace situations. Social skills refer to the ability to talk easily to other people and do things in a group. Social communication often takes

place at an informal and friendly level. Nevertheless, when business people meet at social events to exchange pleasantries, or meet for lunch or dinner, there are some social etiquettes which have to be taken note of.

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Grapevine Communication

Grapevine is a kind of informal communication that prevails in organizations and businesses. The source of such communication may not be clear. It spreads by way of gossip and rumours. It travels through informal networks and quite often travels faster than the formal messages. Sometimes, it gets more powerful and becomes more receptive than the formal communication. The prevalence of this type of communication in an organization has to be recognized and accepted. A skilled communicator can derive benefits from such a communication as well. It may not always be possible to control the grapevine, but, nevertheless, an able communicator knows how to influence it. Like any other type of communication, this one too has its merits and demerits.

14.3 COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Communication is a process that involves certain distinct steps. In its simpler form, it relates to stimulus and response. The stimulus arises from the communicator and the receiver responds. Communication is not complete till the message conveyed by the sender is properly understood by the receiver. Any communication process should necessarily have three elements—sender, receiver and the message.

Every communication has a distinct purpose, which determines the message. The stimulus emanates from the sender, and the receiver comes up with the response. The objective in any business communication, as we have seen earlier, is to elicit the desired response. To be understood, however, is a necessary but not a sufficient condition in the organizational context. When the understanding results in the intended action, the objective of the communication is achieved.

The process of communication in an organization can be illustrated with the help of Figure 14.4. It brings out the following steps involved in the communication process:

Step 1: Message is initiated.

Step 2: Sender picks up the idea and encodes it for proper understanding.

Step 3: The encoded message is then transmitted through the chosen medium or channel.

Step 4: Receiver receives the message and decodes it.

Step 5: The decoded message is used or acted upon.

Step 6: As a final step, feedback on use or action is sent back to the sender.

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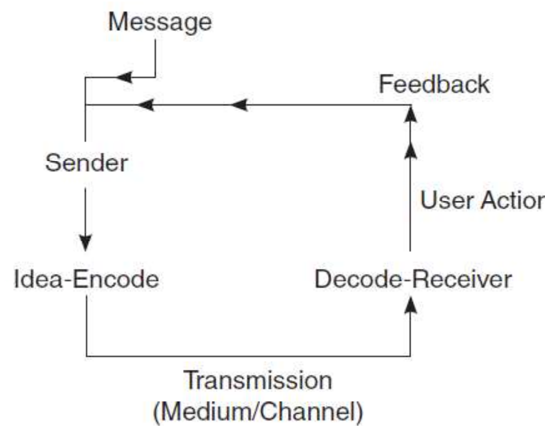


Fig. 14.4 *Process of Communication*

Communication Relates to Stimulus and Response

The starting point of any communication is the existence of a message. The process of communication starts with a purpose. There is an underlying idea that has to be put across. This idea is developed into a message. The sender gives shape to the idea he wants to communicate.

The next step, as is evident from the chart, is the encoding of the idea. Encoding ensures that the idea or the message assumes a communicable form. Encoding would involve choosing the right words, expressions, phrases, charts and pictures in order to facilitate complete and clear expression of the idea. In doing so, the sender of the message should keep in mind the ability of the receiver to decode and comprehend the message.

The encoded message is now ready to travel. The journey or transmission is undertaken through a medium or channel. The sender of the message has to select the medium or the communication channel—oral, written, visual, audio-visual, electronic or a combination of any of these. Each of these offers various options. The choice of the medium would be influenced by factors like availability, cost, urgency and reliability.

The transmission is complete when the message reaches the receiver. The message has travelled from the sender to the receiver. Having received the message, it is now up to the receiver to respond as he pleases. If the receiver does not open the mailbox, ignores the letter, declines to take the call, refuses to view the audio-visual film or ignores the e-mail, the message gets lost, and the idea fails to reach its destination.

For the communication process to progress as intended, the receiver, on getting the message, should decode it. Decoding relates to reading, listening, viewing, understanding and interpretation of the message. Proper decoding is again a must for effective communication. It calls for earnestness on the part of the receiver. It depends on one's willingness to respond to the sender's efforts in sending the message. Even when one responds, understanding and interpretation

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of the message will be influenced by one's knowledge, attitude and perception. Communication is complete and effective only when the receiver correctly comprehends the purpose of the message, uses it and acts upon it as envisaged by the sender.

In the organizational context, in particular, the communication process moves a step further resulting in relevant feedback to the sender. The quality of feedback received from the target indicates the effectiveness of communication.

The process of communication is thus a progressive step-by-step movement. Both the sender and the receiver have a definite role to play in ensuring the success of communication. Their internal background, social status, hierarchical relationships, organizational climate, knowledge, skills and attitudes are among a host of factors that determine the effectiveness of communication. Added to that is the efficiency and reliability of the channels of communication chosen in the process. The choice of methods and channels should be such that they are capable of overcoming barriers, if any, to the process of communication.

Check Your Progress

1. What is the first and foremost objective of any communication?
2. What is supportive communication?
3. What is the source of grapevine communication?

14.4 KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT: DIMENSIONS

Knowledge management (KM) is the explicit and systematic management of vital knowledge and its associated processes of creation, organization, diffusion, use and exploitation. Identification of knowledge, as a recognized field of principal investigation for business use, in addition to academic research, has spurred continuing demand for information systems. Organizational expenditure on IT has generated significant benefits for the employees and is growing at a fast pace. As organizations grow, they are challenged by rapidly changing economic forces that necessitate the development of faster and more accurate responses. However, the information explosion threatens to overwhelm and overload individual and corporate response mechanisms. Knowledge leads people towards the effective usage of information so that they can make more informed and successful decisions in addition to enhanced customer interactions. Some organizations have learned the value of knowledge the hard way having lost it through manpower reduction or retirement programmmes. Conversely, some organizations that have managed their knowledge in a professional, proactive and systematic manner have become more innovative, agile, and successful. These companies are able to connect a high percentage of their employees and keep them focused on the enterprise strategy and goals by having them generously share their experiences as well as insights with one another.

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What is Knowledge?

Knowledge is the full utilization of information and data, coupled with the potential of people's skills, competencies, ideas, intuitions, commitments and motivations. In the highly volatile and extremely competitive global economy of today, knowledge is people, money, leverage, learning, flexibility, power and competitive advantage. Knowledge is more relevant to sustained business than capital, labour or land. Nevertheless, it remains the most neglected asset. It is more than justified true belief and is essential for action, performance and adaption. Knowledge provides organizations with the ability to respond to novel situations and thus generate and sustain competitive advantage over their rivals.

Knowledge is inherent in ideas, judgments, talents, root causes, relationships, perspectives and concepts. It is stored in the individuals brain or encoded in organizational processes, documents, products, services, facilities and systems. Knowledge is the basis for, and the driver of the current global economy. Knowledge is the result of learning which provides the only sustainable competitive advantage. Knowledge results in enhanced and effective action, focused innovation, pooled expertise, special relationships, and alliances. Knowledge results in value-added behaviour and activities that result in tangible benefits to an organization. However, for knowledge to be of value it must be focused, current, tested, and shared. There is no consensus on what knowledge is. Over the millennia, the dominant philosophies of each age have added their own definition of knowledge to the list. Science has added to this list as well. Organizational knowledge can be defined as the understanding of the intrinsic systems and processes that could be employed to take effective action achieving the organizational goal. There are different kinds of knowledge, and a number of different knowledge classification schemes and taxonomies. It is important to recognize the important and general classes of knowledge that, which influence the deployment of KM within an organization.

Data, Information and Knowledge

Data, information, and knowledge are closely interconnected. Data lies at the lowest layer in the knowledge chain and acts as the raw material for the knowledge process. Data refers to the unformatted, unstructured material freely available around us which by itself does not provide any meaning. The various signals—acoustic, visual, tactile and otherwise that are around us could be interpreted as having information. The formal relation between data and information is that information is a structuring of data that reduces uncertainty. Information value of a message is higher if it reduces more uncertainty. In a more informal way, it could be said that information is interpreted data. Knowledge is the interpretation of information in the eyes of a learner using his own history, his experiences, insights and interpretation. It is because of this reason that the same information may lead to different knowledge for various individuals. In other words,

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Data + Context = Information

or

Information = Interpreted Data

and

Knowledge = Interpreted Information

or

Information + Experiences, Insights,
Judgment (of an individual) = Knowledge

14.4.1 Knowledge Management Processes

The knowledge processes and function play a very crucial role in leveraging the IC of an organization. They are responsible for the extraction of knowledge from the various data and information sources within an organization, their storage and flow within the organization. KM Implementations involve distinct and repeatable cycles or processes irrespective of the terminologies used or the path followed. There are five distinct organizational knowledge processes that are as follows:

1. Knowledge creation
2. Knowledge acquisition/capture
3. Knowledge organization
4. Knowledge sharing
5. Knowledge renewal

These must not be confused with the concept of knowledge life cycle. These processes confirm to the organizational knowledge life cycle. KM involves connecting people to people and people to information and in the process creates sustainable competitive advantage for organizations (Figure 14.5). The subsequent section presents the five key knowledge processes as listed above.

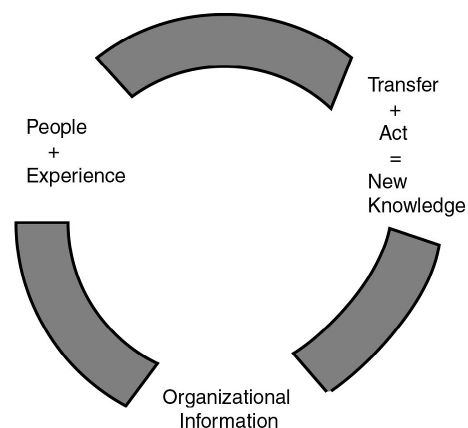


Fig. 14.5 *Organization Knowledge Transfer*

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Knowledge creation: One of the fundamental questions that arise in the minds of the readers is 'Is knowledge created or is it discovered?'. In the normal course of an individual's or an organizations work, knowledge is created, discovered, transformed, and shared. The process is cyclic and contributes to the development of the knowledge base of an organization. The following sections would highlight the above concepts. Organizational knowledge can and does take many forms. Some of these forms are:

(i) Competitor knowledge

(ii) Customer knowledge

(iii) Supplier knowledge

(iv) Product knowledge

(v) Technology knowledge

(vi) Process knowledge

The consistent components of these types of knowledge is the organizational context and the ways in which they are created, and are commonly referred to as the knowledge creation cycle. Generally, knowledge within organizations is created in two distinct cycles as mentioned below. While these two cycles and types of knowledge are created and often used differently, they are interrelated as illustrated in Figure 14.6.

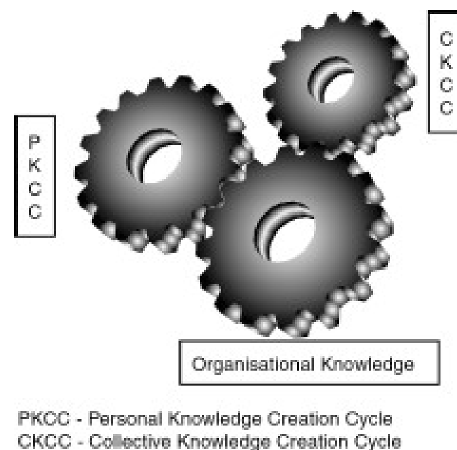


Fig. 14.6 *Organizational Knowledge Creation Cycle*

Personal knowledge creation cycle: Personal knowledge is created through the experiential exposure to information. The input (information) can and does take several forms. It can be conversational, reports, memos and papers, etc. This input is then refined based on personal experience, expertise, and through the serendipity factor, which has the effect of building upon or adding to one's existing knowledge that is then used as new input to the cycle as illustrated in Figure 14.7. This type of knowledge when applied within the organizational context generates new knowledge that is then applied to the organization, thus creating or enhancing the organization's knowledge.

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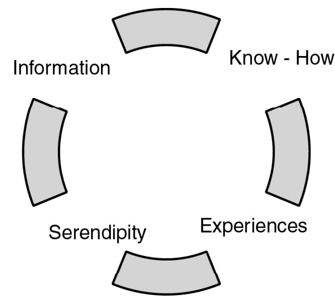


Fig. 14.7 *Personal Knowledge Creation Cycle*

Collective knowledge creation cycle: The organization and the information within its context constitute collective knowledge. This knowledge is generated by the application of context sensitive personal knowledge derived through the personal knowledge creation cycle, as well as the explicit information contained in systems (procedures, processes or technology). In a normal cycle, information is acquired, shared, and subsequently acted upon. This actionable information is then fed back into the collective knowledge creation cycle (illustrated in Figure 14.8) and acts as further input to the personal knowledge process described above.

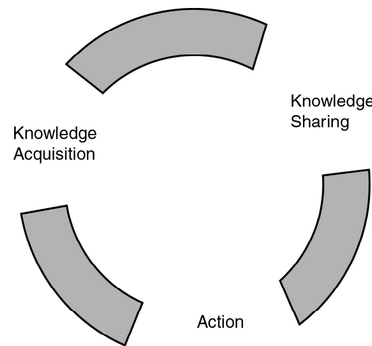


Fig. 14.8 *Collective Knowledge Creation Cycle*

The two knowledge creation cycles described earlier form a system that feeds on itself to create a reusable knowledge base while receiving and acting on external inputs, thereby refreshing the organization's collective and personal knowledge by providing new information and insight.

Knowledge acquisition/capture: In today's internet age, enormous amount of data is available to individuals as well as organizations at the click of a mouse. This has fuelled a growing need to manage explosive amounts of information effectively. Although indexing and linking documents and other information sources is an important step, capturing the knowledge contained within these diverse sources is crucial for the building as well as effectively using organizational information repositories. Knowledge acquisition has been a challenging area of research in artificial intelligence and has stemmed from the initial efforts to develop expert systems. Driven by the modern Internet culture and by knowledge-based industries, the study of knowledge acquisition has a renewed importance. Although there has

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been considerable work accomplished in the area of knowledge capture, activities have been distributed across several distinct research communities. In a shop floor, apprentices acquire knowledge by keen observation of a skilled mechanic performing a task. In the human-computer interaction community, programming-by-demonstration systems learn to perform a task by watching a user demonstrate how to accomplish it. In knowledge engineering, modelling techniques and design principles have been proposed for knowledge-based systems, often exploiting commonly occurring domain-independent inference structures and reusable domain-specific ontologies.

Knowledge organization: Knowledge organization refers to the design and development of a knowledge base or knowledge repositories and the associated conceptual access structure to ensure easier retrieval, creation and sharing of knowledge for user communities. The organizational KM system must ensure strategically that all important knowledge assets and flows are known, utilized and enhanced according to their respective long-term contribution to the business value. The creation of an optimal conceptual access structure requires the careful design and steady maintenance of additional knowledge. In order to provide the most useful subject access points for various user communities, developers who generate indexes must judge the potential subjects of an item within a collection from various viewpoints.

According to Alexander Sigel, a leading proponent of this field, knowledge organization is an interdisciplinary cultural activity which adds informational value to collections containing knowledge. It assigns subject access points to items so that the needs of the user groups of the associated information system are served best.

Knowledge organization refers to the description of documents, their contents, features and purposes, and the organization of these descriptions so as to make these documents and their parts accessible to persons seeking them or the messages that they contain. Knowledge organization encompasses every type and method of indexing, abstracting, cataloguing, classification, records management, bibliography, and the creation of textual or bibliographic databases for information retrieval.

All issues of knowledge organization currently focus on the problem of how to organize on line resources. The organizational intranet/internet provides a setting in which knowledge organization naturally finds its place, but at the same time needs constant revision and adaptation to fit new requirements. Consequently, principles like cataloguing and indexing as well as supporting tools change constantly. Within Networked Information Discovery and Retrieval (NIDR), one of the most prominent issues of knowledge organization on the intranet/internet is the question of how to cooperatively describe resources with metadata, especially, from which knowledge organization schemata draws the entries, and how to interrelate the same between different descriptions.

Knowledge sharing: Traditional institutional frameworks and static disciplinary boundaries are major impediments in the development of critical knowledge and creative approaches that are needed to solve complex problems. The educational needs and skill sets of practitioners need to undergo rapid changes to accommodate increasing specialization of knowledge and the fast pace of technological development. Vast amounts of information generated through routine processes, are lost on account of the inability of current people, processes and systems to manage, interpret and act on it. Knowledge, unless effectively shared and acted upon, does not possess intrinsic value for an individual as well as an organization. This calls for an increased need to access as well as share extra-disciplinary knowledge and to engage in meaningful trans-disciplinary activities. Knowledge is an object that is articulated in words or is made explicit through language. This facilitates the distribution and analysis and gathering of new knowledge.

The desire to collaborate through knowledge sharing and reuse has arisen within a segment of the broad knowledge representation community that is interested in scaling up to larger systems and that views the sharing and reuse of knowledge bases as a means to this end. Closely related to this effort is a concern for building embedded systems in which knowledge representation systems support certain functions rather than act as ends in themselves. The sharing and reuse of accumulated knowledge leads to increase in the productivity of the associated KM system which is further enhanced by the incorporation of the following three mechanisms:

1. Libraries of multiple layers of reusable knowledge bases that is either incorporated into software or remotely consulted at execution time. Layers in such knowledge bases capture conceptualizations, tasks, and problem solving methods.
2. System construction is facilitated by the availability of common knowledge representation systems.
3. The ability (comparent) to translate between the various representation systems.

This new reuse-oriented approach offers tools and methodologies that allow developers to find and use library entries useful to their needs as well as pre-existing services built on these libraries. These tools are complemented by systems that allow developers to offer their work for inclusion in the libraries.

Knowledge renewal: The processes used to create, communicate, and apply knowledge results in the generation of new knowledge and resultant expansion of the organization's knowledge base. This cyclic process transforms data into information which is enhanced and converted into knowledge. The application of this knowledge then creates new data and information thereby repeating the cycle, as depicted in Figure 14.9.

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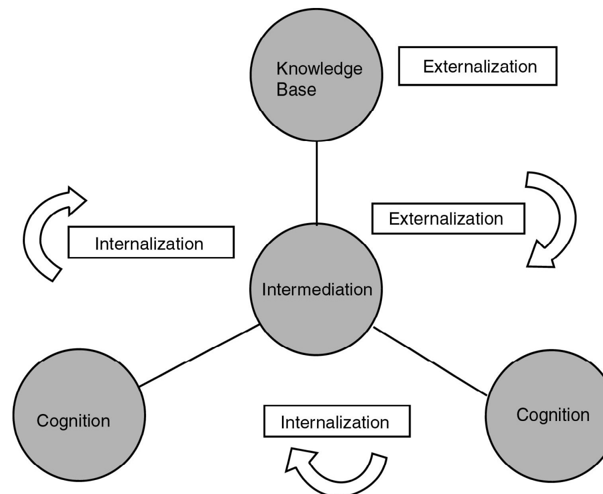


Fig. 14.9 *Organizational Knowledge Conversion/Renewal*

The most critical issue that must be addressed by any KM system or by any knowledge based application is the process of converting tacit knowledge within an organization into explicit knowledge and building of a self sustaining system that channels this knowledge back to the knowledge workers thereby enhancing the quality, while providing a channel for dissemination of knowledge.

Check Your Progress

4. What is knowledge management?
5. What does knowledge organization refer to?

14.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The first and foremost objective of any communication is to inform.
2. Supportive communication is a form of communication in which people are encouraged to speak freely and come out with their feelings and concerns.
3. Grapevine is a kind of informal communication that prevails in organizations and businesses. The source of such communication may not be clear. It spreads by way of gossip and rumours.
4. Knowledge management is the explicit and systematic management of vital knowledge and its associated processes of creation, organization, diffusion, use and exploitation.
5. Knowledge organization refers to the design and development of a knowledge base or knowledge repositories and the associated conceptual access structure to ensure easier retrieval, creation and sharing of knowledge for user communities.

14.6 SUMMARY

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- Communication is the modus operandi of social and commercial intercourse. It is communication which gets the world going.
- The need for communication arises from the need to emote, to interact, and to express one's ideas and thoughts and the need to relate and connect.
- The art of communication is as old as mankind itself. It is, in fact, older than the written word or even the spoken word. Human beings learnt to communicate much before they learnt to speak, read or write.
- The objectives, activities and inter-relationships of a business organization necessitate communication to subserve its many diverse objectives.
- The objectives of communication are dynamic and ever-changing. Depending upon the nature and functions of the organization, the range of people it deals with, and the sensitivities involved, the process of communication assumes new dimensions.
- Communication can be categorized into different types depending upon the level at which it takes place, the direction it takes or by its very nature.
- Mass communication is distinctive in view of its scale. Essentially, it addresses a large mass of people. Public speaking, newspapers, magazines and journals, radio, television and dotcoms are channels of mass communication.
- Knowledge is the full utilization of information and data, coupled with the potential of people's skills, competencies, ideas, intuitions, commitments and motivations.
- Knowledge is the interpretation of information in the eyes of a learner using his own history, his experiences, insights and interpretation. It is because of this reason that the same information may lead to different knowledge for various individuals.
- The knowledge processes and function play a very crucial role in leveraging the IC of an organization.
- There are five distinct organizational knowledge processes that are as follows:
  - (i) Knowledge creation
  - (ii) Knowledge acquisition/capture
  - (iii) Knowledge organization
  - (iv) Knowledge sharing
  - (v) Knowledge renewal

14.7 KEY WORDS

- **Grapevine:** It refers to an informal person-to-person means of circulating information or gossip.

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- **Networking:** It is the process of meeting and talking to a lot of people, esp. in order to get information that can help you
- **Lateral communication:** The type of communication that generally takes place in an organization and is neither upward nor downward. It proceeds in a horizontal manner and takes place among equals and at peer level.

14.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What is the need of communication?
2. Define downward communication.
3. What is the relationship between data, information and knowledge?
4. What is knowledge renewal?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Examine the objectives of communication in an organization.
2. Describe the various types of communication.
3. Explain the different steps of the communication process.
4. Discuss the knowledge management process.

14.9 FURTHER READINGS

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